PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

S. J. DUNCAN-CLARK

STORY OF AMERICA'S ACHIEVEMENTS

GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

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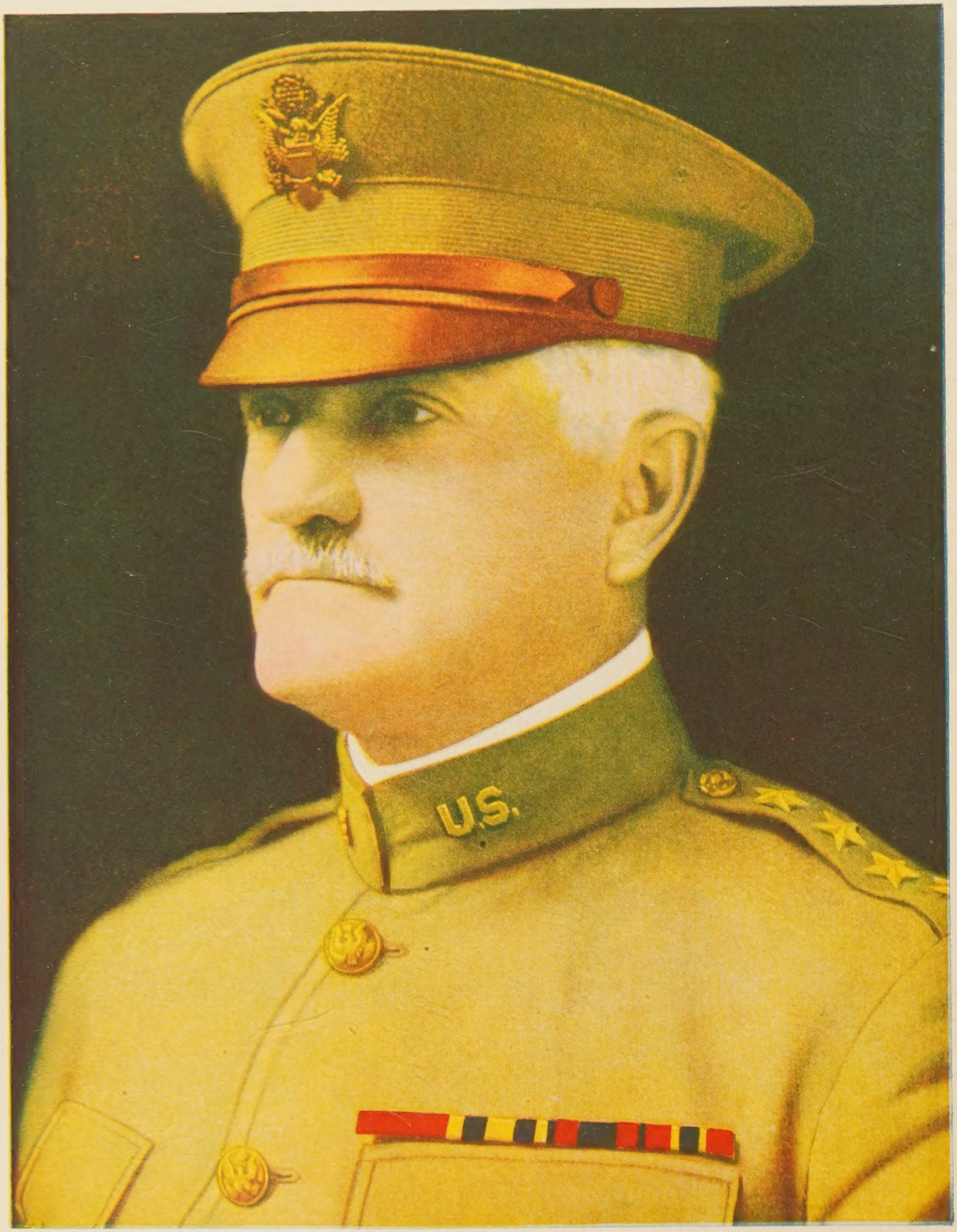
Pictorial History

— OF —

The World War



GEN. PERSHING, COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE AMERICAN FORCES ABROAD.

PICTORIAL HISTORY

OF THE

WORLD WAR

By

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and

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also

HON. JOSEPHUS DANIELS
Secretary of the Navy
in a Special Article on *Our Navy*

and

GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING
on the *American Expeditionary Forces*

Illustrated with Colorgravures
British, Canadian, American, and French Official
Photographs and Maps

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FOREWORD

This volume attempts to encompass the causes of the great conflict, the chief happenings of military and political importance during the bloodiest four years of the world history, and their results and their effects upon the nations involved. An earnest endeavor has been made to take the reader through the most important phases. The limitation of this work to one volume makes the giving of exhaustive details of every incident, every battle, every siege, every advance or retreat, an impossibility. But in this very limitation lies the book's greatest value.

To please a tactician, chapters might be devoted to the battles along the Marne, the Somme, the Yser, or to the struggle before Verdun or to the Russian campaigns. But for the reader who seeks a straightforward, circumstantial narrative of the great war, without its chief events being clouded and obscured by a multiplicity of subsidiary details, this book has been written.

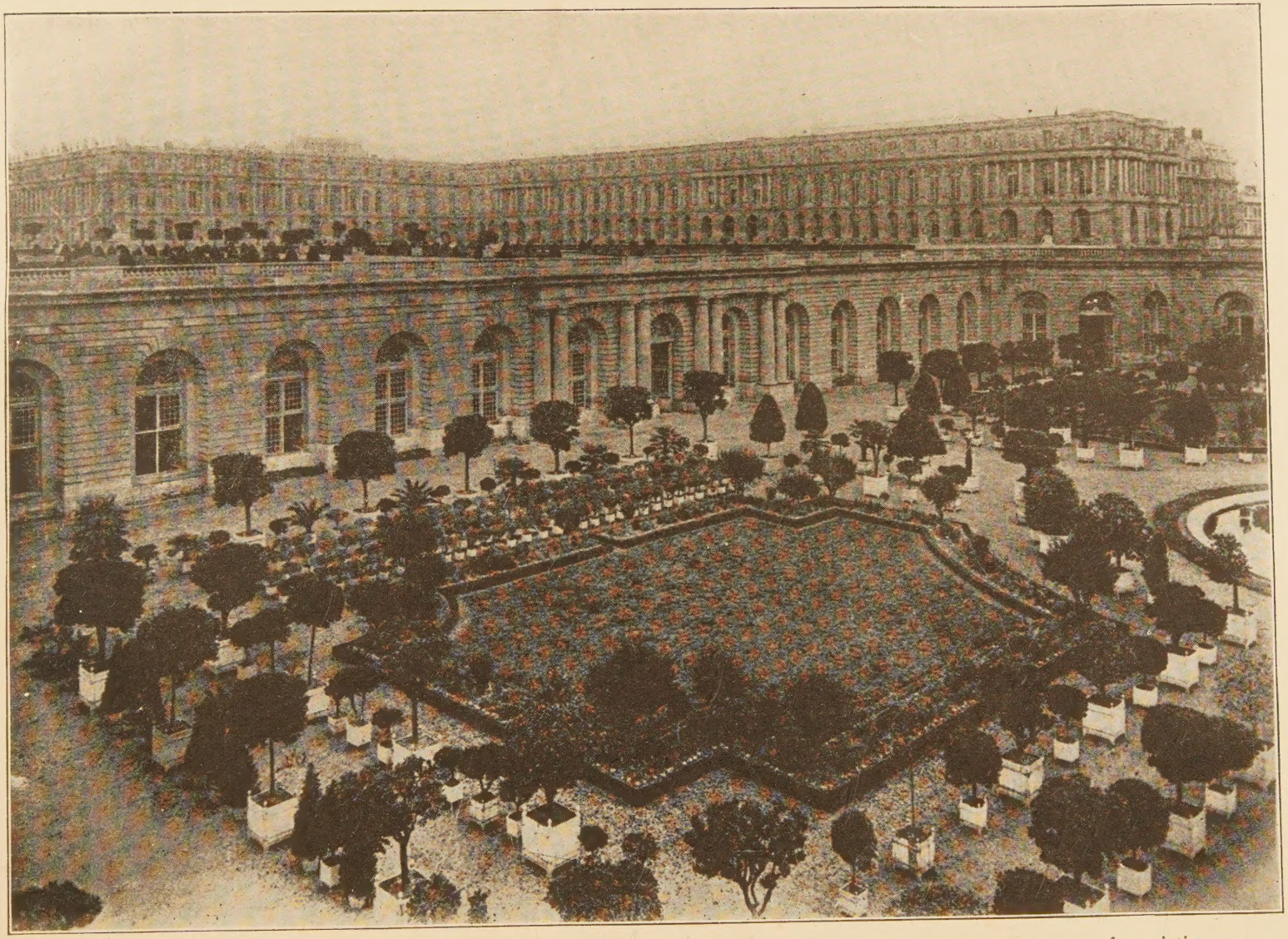
Devotion of time to research has been given that its facts may be accurate. It contains no statements based on rumors, no accounts taken from unauthoritative sources.

The United States undoubtedly was the great determining factor in the overthrow and crushing of junkerism, and for that reason this volume should be of the greatest interest to Americans. Two million sons of America were in France. Their concentration and transportation was the greatest military feat in history. America's active share in the war, though it covered only a little over a year and a half, is the nation's most glorious achievement. With this in mind, painstaking effort has been made to do the fullest justice to recounting the events of the last eighteen months of the crusade to crush autocracy and militarism.

Entertaining visualization of the war is best attained through photographs. For this reason this book has been profusely illustrated and the hundreds of scenes photographed during the four years of campaigning on all the great fronts, in themselves tell the narrative in a convincing manner. These pictures were taken by the most skilled men attached to the fighting forces. Many of them are the official output of the bureau of public information in Washington. Others were taken by men who risked death for a "close-up."

The events of the war have been brought down to the present day. No vital episode of the struggle has been overlooked. The narrative is complete from the demolition of Liege to the signing of the terms of the armistice and the abdication of the German Kaiser. It is hoped that it will do full justice to the sacrifice, courage, steadfastness in the face of apparent defeat, of the tireless fighting men of Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, Serbia and the United States.

D-C.



The Historic Palace of Versailles, near Paris, where the Supreme War Council of the Allies met and the terms of armistice were decided upon. The King of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany here in 1871.

DEDICATION

To Righteousness,
The Foundation of Peace;
To Freedom,
The Spirit of Peace;
To Democracy,
The Dwelling of Peace;
and to all Brave Men of whatever Clime or Creed,
Who for these things fought and suffered even unto death.

Panorama of Paris.

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Pictorial History of The Great War

The Red Trail of Prussia

CHAPTER I

PRUSSIA UNSCRUPULOUS IN EARLY HISTORY—BISMARCK THE EMPIRE BUILDER—GERMANY VICTORIOUS OVER FRANCE IN 1870—HARSHEST TERMS IN HISTORY—PRUSSIA PREPARED CAREFULLY FOR ALL WARS—MIDDLE EUROPE EMPIRE PRUSSIAN AMBITION.

About two centuries and a half ago the Mark of Brandenburg, formerly known as the Nordmark, came under the sway of Frederick William the Great Elector.

That was the beginning of Prussia as an ambitious, aggressive and unscrupulous state.

The first act of Frederick William was the abolition of the constitution. He made himself absolute monarch. His second act was to create a professional army to sustain him in absolutism.

He trained his army, disciplined it rigorously and equipped it as well as was possible in those seventeenth century days. Then he set forth to conquer his neighbors.

In this he was measurably successful. Other little marks and duchies were added to the territory of Brandenburg, and Berlin became the center of a considerable domain.

So Frederick William the Great Elector set the style for all Prussian rulers who should come after him.

The three fundamental principles of Prussianism were absolutism, military power and conquest. They remained the fundamental principles of Prussianism thru two centuries and a half, and until the allied democracies of the world undertook to destroy them in the World War.

The domain of the Great Elector was joined with East Prussia by his successor, and in 1701 Frederick III assumed the title of King of Prussia, placing the crown on his own head with his own hands —that being the nearest approach to actual coronation by the Almighty that he could devise.

Meantime the sway of the Prussian dynasty extended in all directions. Swedish Pomerania, Silesia and the Posen and West Prussian provinces of Poland were added in the period from 1720 to 1795. The fortunes of war fluctuated, it is true; Prussian arms were not always successful. Napoleon played havoc with Prussian dominions for a time, and the Hohenzollerns were stripped of territories and power; but the Napoleonic success was meteoric. At the Congress of Vienna, in 1814, Prussia recovered practically all that she had lost, and came into possession of several additional states that had hitherto escaped her rapacity.

However, before the yoke of autocracy was finally fastened upon the necks of the subject peoples of Prussia; before they were made the helpless and unthinking tools of a madly ambitious imperialism, there was a revolt against absolutism. The fires of democracy that had swept thru the American colonies, France and England in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries were slow in kindling their torches in central Europe. But in 1848 and '49 Prussia heard the cry of popular defiance in the streets of Berlin, and saw the flag of insurrection raised in Baden and Saxony.

With brutal power she crushed the revolutionaries of her own domain. Those of Baden and Saxony might have fared better—the king of Saxony, indeed, was forced to hide himself—but Prussia sent her armies into her neighbor states and trampled ruthlessly under foot the brave men who sought to win freedom.

That is typical of Prussia. Always and everywhere she has been the enemy of

Archduke Franz Ferdinand, his wife and children. The Archduke and wife were assassinated.

freedom, the implacable foe of democracy. She has denied it to all people who came under her sway, and she has done her best to destroy it in the lands that she could not, or did not choose, to conquer.

The yoke securely fastened upon the necks of the people within her own realm and those of her neighbors; the revolutionary leaders exiled, imprisoned or slain, Prussia turned her thought and energy again toward the plans of aggression that were the chief concern of her rulers and statesmen.

Bismarck had come upon the scene—Bismarck the empire builder. His vision of Prussia dominant was challenged by the presence of a powerful rival in central Europe. The House of Hapsburg, ruling Austria, had been often the ally of the House of Hohenzollern in expeditions of conquest and plunder. But Bismarck wanted no ally of co-equal strength, no possible competitor in imperialism. The Prussian conception of an ally is a vassal, compelled to play the game as Prussia pleases.

Hence it was necessary to eliminate Austria as a potential rival in order to assure for Prussia the place she desired.

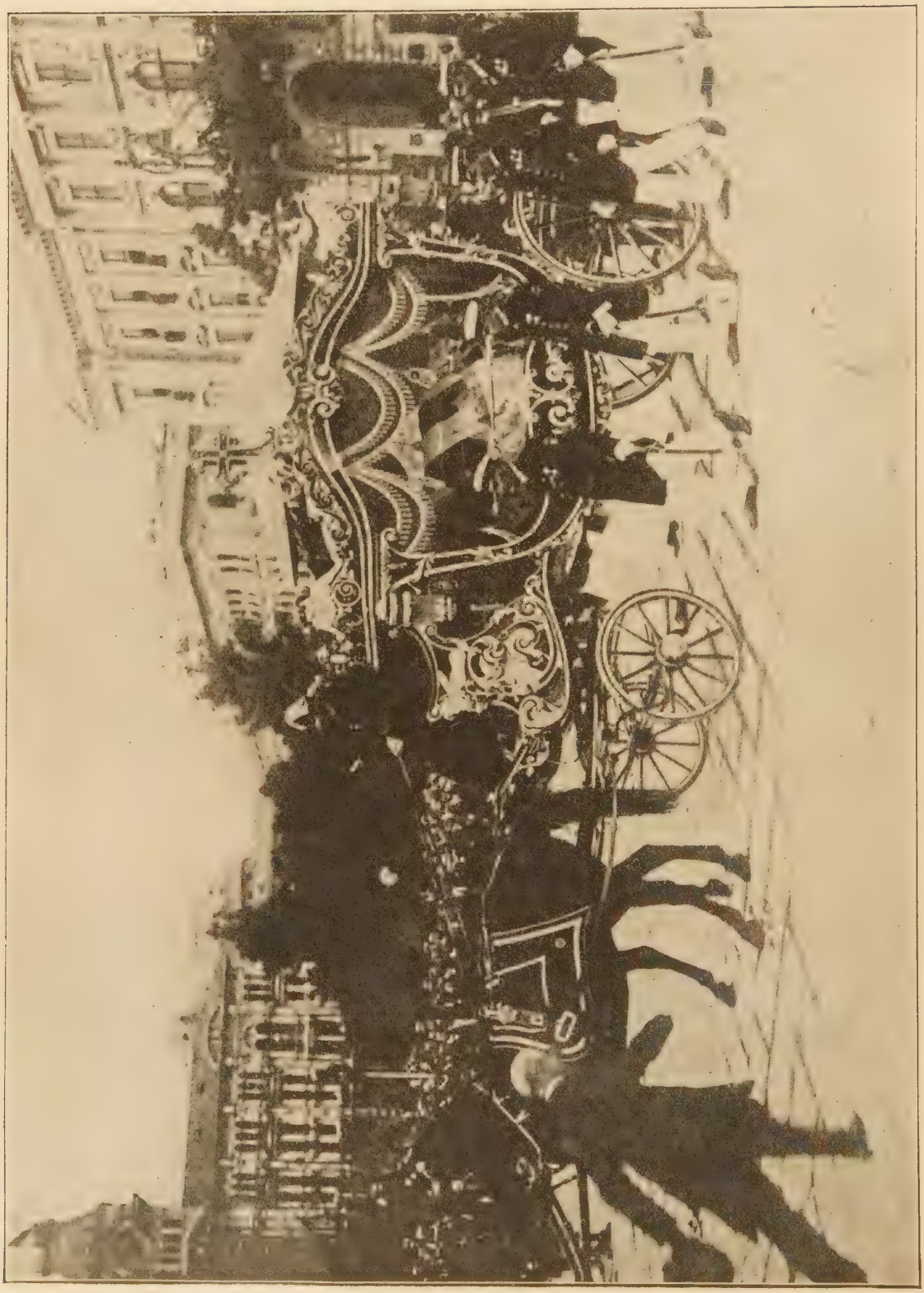
Bismarck had no difficulty in finding a cause for friction. There was a dispute over Schleswig-Holstein that he carefully fostered. He encouraged the belief that all difficulties could be settled amicably and, in the meantime, made every necessary preparation for war. When things were in readiness to strike a sharp, hard blow, he aggravated the dispute to the point of ruptured relations. The war he wanted followed. Prussia's armies, ready for action, were hurled into Bavaria and Austria, the former state having elected to take Austria's side in the quarrel.

The struggle was of short duration. In seven weeks Austria capitulated at the battle of Konnigsgratz, or Sadowa. From that day Hapsburg never ventured to challenge Hohenzollern, or in any way to interfere with Prussian plans.

Bismarck, having cleared the field, went on with his work of building an empire. He welded the German states into a confederation under a constitution that was designed to fasten the Hohenzollern dynasty upon it forever, and to give to its successive monarchs autocratic control, supported by military power. It was provided in the constitution that it might not be amended without the consent of Prussia. This was the ultimate and absolute safeguard. Only Prussia could undo Prussia; only Hohenzollern could relax the grip of Hohenzollern upon the lives of the German people.

Serbian civilians hung by Austrians along the roadways.

Bavaria, having suffered defeat with Austria in the Seven Weeks' war, came reluctantly into the confederation. She did not love Prussia and the Hohenzollerns. For years it was against the law to display the German flag in Bavaria.



Funeral of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife.

She never became fully reconciled to her new status as the subordinate of Prussia in the family of Teutonic tribes.

Hohenzollern ambitions were not satisfied to rest with the consolidation of territory under the German empire. The King of Prussia had become German Emperor, and the new title merely quickened the inherent appetite for further conquest. Envious eyes turned toward France. The rich provinces of Alsace-Lorraine invited plunder and acquisition.

A comparatively short struggle resulted in a complete victory for Germany. It was another instance where preparedness prevailed over courage and devotion. Alsace-Lorraine was added to the German empire, and France was compelled to pay an indemnity of five billion francs in order to get the German army out of her territory.

This sketch of Prussian history is necessary in order that we may understand how wholly in keeping with the character

Serbian officers watching experiments with liquid fire.

Moreover France was a possible rival whose humbling was advisable in order to assure the dominant position of Europe.

Bismarck deliberately laid the foundation for war with France by provoking a quarrel thru the publication of a garbled telegram from the King of Prussia to the King of France. The wording of the telegram was made to carry an insult to the French monarch—and in those days there was only one way of dealing with insults.

and aspirations of the rulers and people of Prussia was the world war in which their ambitions culminated.

Prussia never blundered into wars unwittingly. She made them with deliberate purpose; prepared for them long in advance, and carried them thru to victory with only one intent—to increase her own power and territorial sovereignty.

The forty odd years of peace that followed gave the world time to forget Prussia's history. Moreover, Prussia, herself,

The ex-Kaiser, Crown Prince, Eitel Frederick, Prince Adelburt, Prince Oscar, Prince Augustus and Prince Joachim perfectly comfortable behind the line reveling in debauchery and having others do their bidding.

was camouflaged in the German empire, and people who had known the German tribes before they became subject to Prussian rule and guidance found it difficult to believe that the industrious, home-loving folk of Germany could have in their hearts ambitions that menaced the peace and happiness of neighbor nations. It is probable, indeed, that such ambitions were foreign to these tribes or states in their earlier history as a confederation, but they were never absent from the minds of their Prussian over-lords.

During those forty years Prussia did two things—she Prussianized the rest of the German people, and she built up a great army and a great navy for enterprises of conquest conceived on a vaster scale than ever before.

The story of these four decades of miseducation for the German people is one that merits a volume to itself. The secular and religious instruction given the youth of the land was definitely directed toward inculcating a vaunting pride of race and nation and a contempt for all other peoples. They were taught to believe that the Germans were the chosen of God, with a destiny to subdue the world to their own peculiar "kultur." The state, embodied in the kaiser and the general staff of the German army, became for them the voice of God. What the state decreed was right, no matter how it might violate individual conceptions of ethics. To live and die for the state, unquestioningly obedient to its commands—this was the supreme morality.

This education was part of the process by which the German people were made the docile tools of the Prussian dynasty, serviceable for the later execution of its maturing plans.

Such is the general background of the World War.

As we draw nearer the fateful year in which Germany launched her long preparing thunderbolts against the world, one incident after another shows that the hour of action was no chance hour.

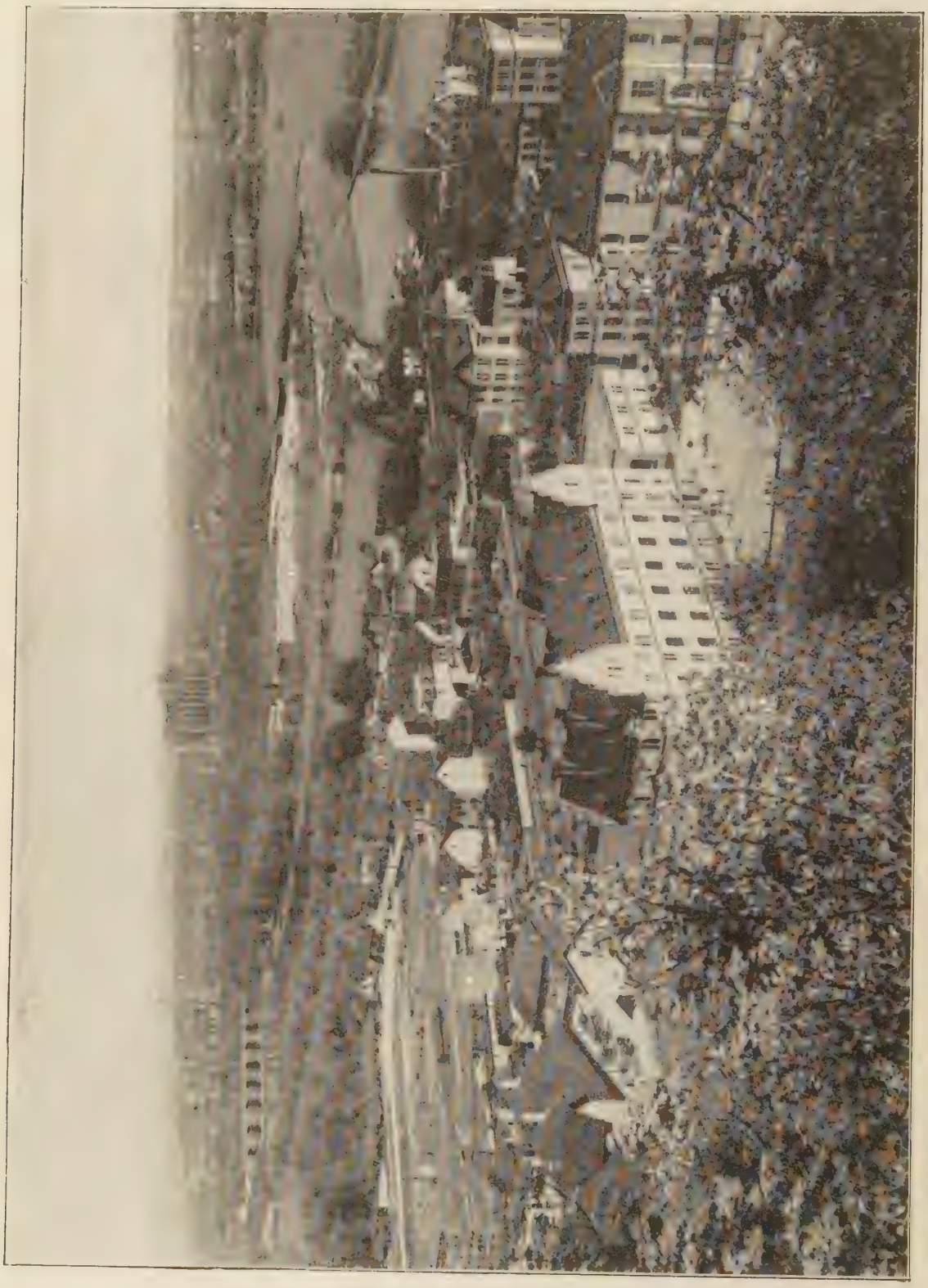
Wilhelm II dreamed thru the earlier years of his reign of the day when the resting German sword would be again unsheathed to continue the traditions of his dynasty and to carve from Europe and the continents beyond a domain greater in extent and incomparably richer in resources than any autocrat of history had ever ruled.

In accordance with his ambitions there developed in Germany an organization devoted to the creation of a great middle Europe state, including Austria-Hungary in its scope, and extending its frontiers thru the Balkans to Asia Minor and Mesopotamia. Maps that were printed and distributed in Germany twenty years before the World War began showed the greater empire, and swept within its boundaries Belgium and Holland on the west, and the Baltic States of Russia, Poland, and the Balkan countries on the east and southeast, as well as the dual monarchy. Leaders in this movement spoke of acquiring territory in South America, notably in the southern Argentine. It was boldly predicted that the whole civilized world would become either part of the empire, or subject to it in the relation of vassal to master.

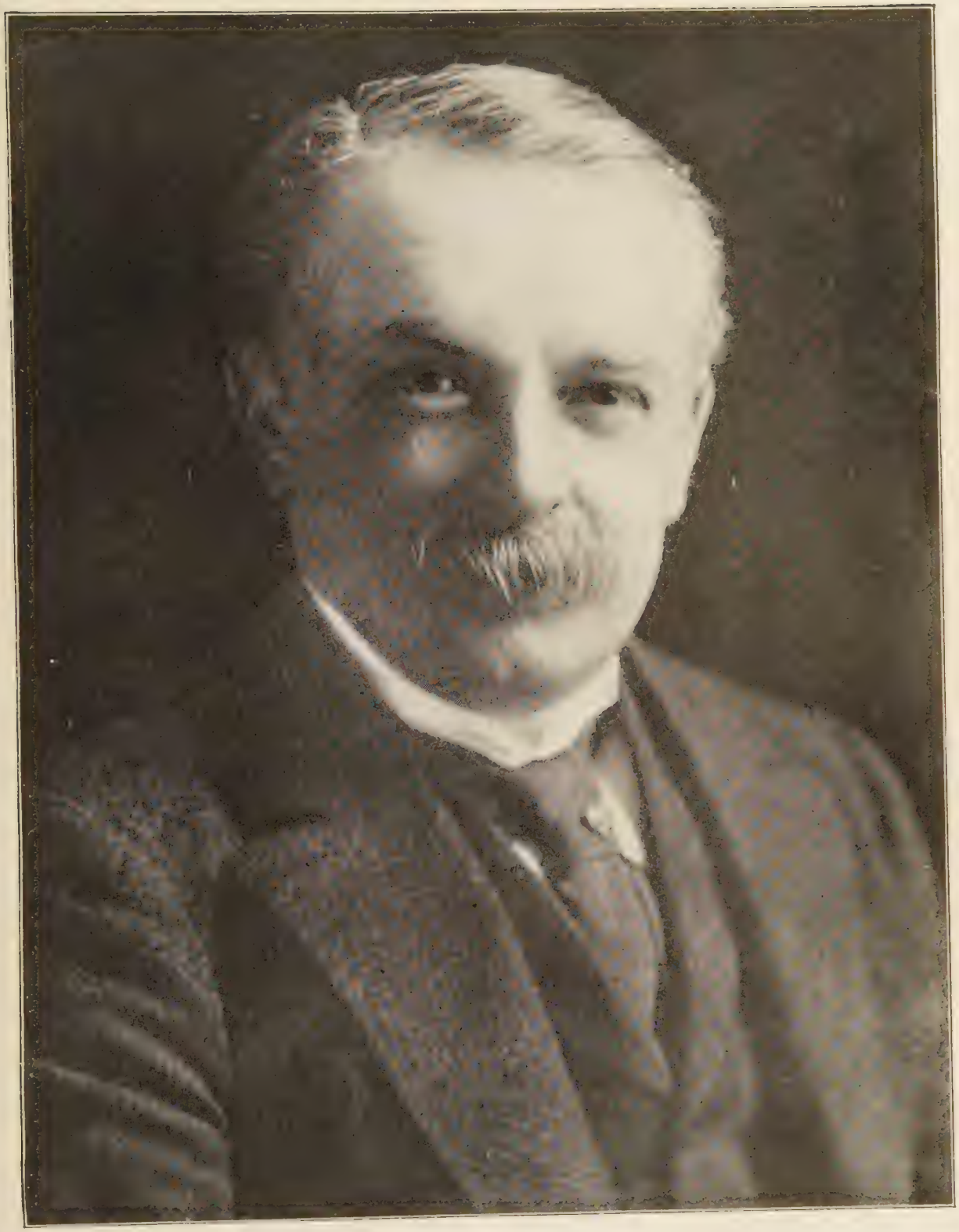
In order to promote the project for a middle-Europe empire with an Asiatic annex, the Kaiser visited Constantinople, Damascus and Jerusalem. He addressed

Wm. Hohenzollern, ex-Kaiser of Germany, in the uniform of a Turkish officer. The shriveled left arm is most noticeable.

MARSHAL FOCH, COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE ENTIRE ALLIED FORCES



Beautiful City of Metz in Lorraine Returned to France.



Lloyd George, Great Britain's foremost Statesman and War Lord.

SIR DOUGLAS HAIG, COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE BRITISH FORCES IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM

a great audience of Turks in Damascus, and declared himself the friend of the Ottoman empire and the Mohammedhan faith. His immediate reward was a concession from Turkey allowing Germany to construct the Bagdad railroad, and giving it a right of way in European Turkey, thru what was known as the Sanjat of Novibazar, thus creating the link thru the Balkans that has been often referred to as the Bagdad corridor.

Austria-Hungary played her part in these plans, doubtless with the knowledge and approval of Germany. She seized Bosnia and Herzegovina, border Balkan states. When her act aroused the anger of Europe, the Kaiser appeared as her champion, and declared that he supported the policy of his Austrian ally.

The Prussian plans were moving smoothly and swiftly toward the achievement of Prussian ambitions, when the Balkan war broke out. The utter defeat of Turkey deprived Germany of her right of way thru the Sanjat of Novibazar, which became Serbian territory, and closed the Bagdad corridor.

Bulgaria was prompted to renew the struggle in a second war by the intrigues of the central empires. They hoped by this means to recover the advantage they had lost in the Balkans—the necessary link of empire by which Hamburg would be joined to Bagdad. The plan failed. Bulgaria was defeated by her erstwhile allies.

And thus it was that in 1913 Germany found her ambitions checked. Serbia, enlarged in territory, lay squarely across her path to the east. Serbia was antagonistic to Vienna and Berlin. She looked to Petrograd—then St. Petersburg—for friendship and support. Germany realized that diplomatic efforts to open a way thru the Balkans could not succeed.

The Ex-Crown Prince of Germany whose flight showed his weak character.

She knew only one way in which to realize her ambitions—and that was force. Force, for Prussia, was the normal and most desirable method of obtaining anything she desired.

Such is the trail of intrigue and bloodshed that leads up to the critical day in June 1914, when a deed of assassination furnished the pretext that Prussia needed for the execution of her designs.

The German Ex-Emperor's Palace in Berlin.

The Spark in Europe's Powder Magazine

CHAPTER II

ASSASSINATION OF AUSTRIAN ARCHDUKE—AUSTRIA CHARGED ANTI-DYNASTIC PLOTS—ASSASSINATION IN FACT PLOTTED BY GERMANY—ULTIMATUM TO SERBIA—SERBIA MAKES CONCESSIONS TO KEEP PEACE—GERMANY AND AUSTRIA REFUSE TERMS—AUSTRIA DECLARES WAR ON SERBIA, GERMANY DECLARES WAR ON RUSSIA, BELGIUM AND FRANCE—AUSTRIA DRIVES ON SERBIA AND GERMANY INVADES BELGIUM—GREAT BRITAIN SENDS ULTIMATUM TO GERMANY—STATE OF WAR DECLARED BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND GERMANY.

The Balkan wars were over, and with their settlement Europe heaved a sigh of relief. For a time a general conflagration had threatened the nations of the old world. The European war cloud, familiar in the headlines of the newspapers, had hung upon the horizon with low mutterings of thunder. But the crisis was passed safely, and men again began to talk as tho a great war were a thing impossible.

They pointed to the growing intercourse among nations; the spread of democratic institutions; the rising intelligence of the masses of the people; the multiplying of international peace treaties and agreements for arbitration. Had not the Hague peace tribunal been established, and were not many of the great powers of the world signatory to its conventions, in which they pledged themselves to regard international law, and to live with one another on a basis of reasonableness and humanity?

These things were all true.

And yet from all of these things men derived a false sense of security.

Nations ruled by responsible governments, controlled by the enlightened sentiment of their peoples, could not understand the peril that remained latent in the world's autocracies.

Prussia was rapidly completing her plans. We have learned from the disclosures made by Dr. Muehlon, a former Krupp director, and others who were in a position to know what was transpiring within the councils of the empire, that conspiracy against the world's peace was on foot in Germany. There were conferences of the business men and the imperial chancellor, and the men of finance and industry were warned to set their affairs in order and to prepare for a great war.

Then came the spark that exploded the powder magazine of Europe.

The Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, went with his wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, on a visit of state to Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia.

Bosnia had been annexed by Austria-Hungary in 1908. There were many Bosnians who bitterly resented the Hapsburg interference with their national life. The state had its secret political organizations, its intrigues and plots, all concerned with frustrating Austrian rule and promoting Slav interests.

Serajevo was not a safe city for the heir to the Austrian throne to visit, and this fact must have been well known to the authorities. Yet, in spite of the perils that always beset royalty in Europe, and that were peculiarly acute in southeastern Europe; in spite of the known existence of enmities and conspiracies in Bosnia, practically no precautions were taken by the municipal officials of Serajevo to protect the lives of the imperial heir and his wife.

It was on Sunday, June 28, 1914, that the Archduke arrived at the Bosnian capital. He and his wife at once got into an automobile and were driven toward the town hall, where they were to be welcomed officially. The crowd that watched them pass thru the city streets showed little enthusiasm. Their automobile had not gone far before a man dashed from the throng on the pavement, and hurled a

Helgoland, the German Naval Stronghold.

bomb at the car. He missed the archduke. The bomb fell on the road, and exploded just as a second car passed over it, containing members of the archduke's staff.

The would-be assassin attempted to escape in the crowd, but was caught and put under arrest. He was a youth—21 years of age—named Gabrinovics.

Archduke Ferdinand was livid with fear and indignation when he reached the town hall, and, when the burgomaster tried to read to him an address of welcome he interrupted with the angry exclamation:

"Herr Burgomaster, it is perfectly scandalous. We have come to Serajevo, and a bomb is thrown at us."

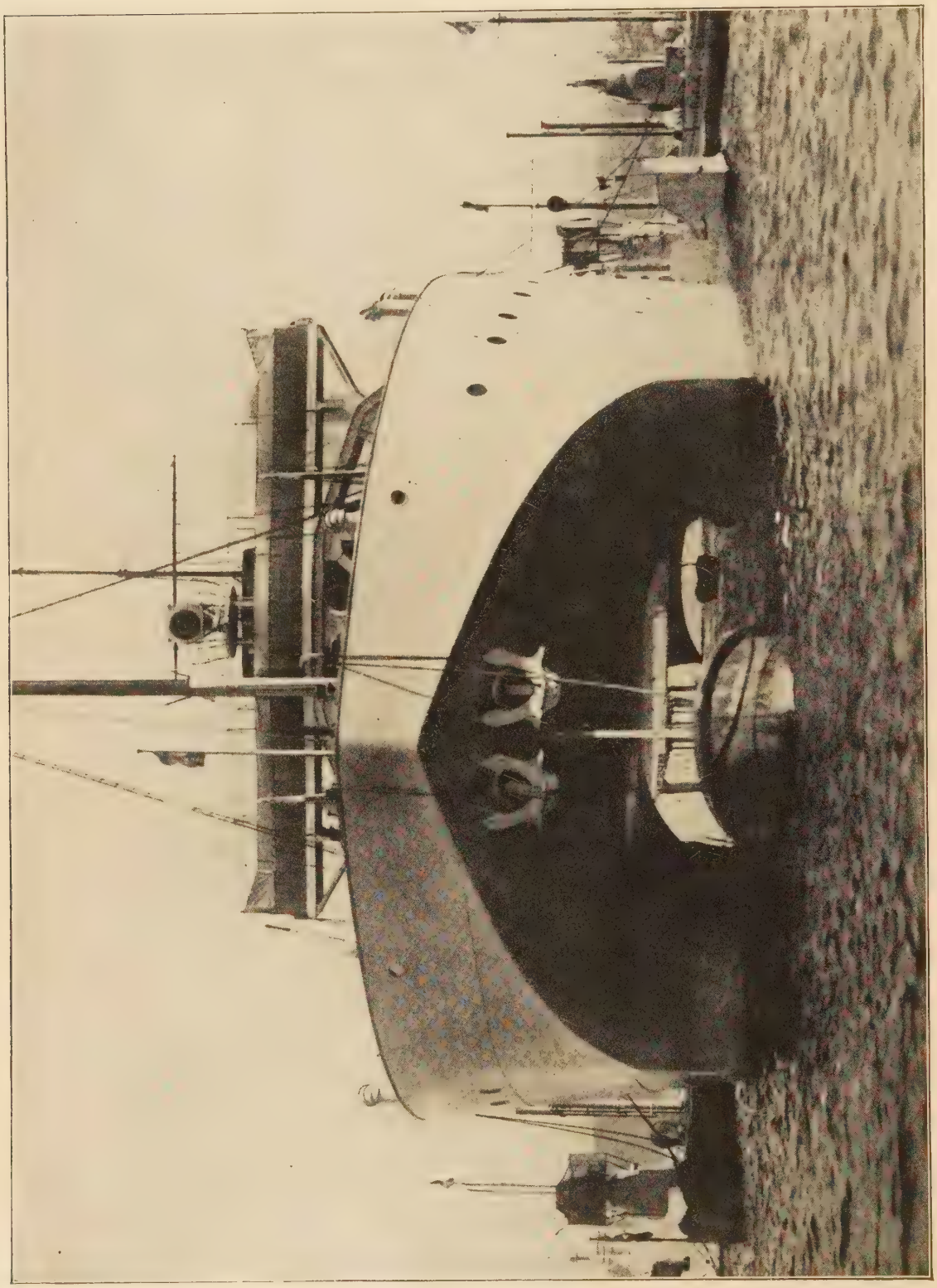
The burgomaster stammered an incoherent apology and went on with his address. But the archduke's sharp rebuke had no practical effect. Nothing was done to remedy the neglect that had exposed the royal visitor to attack. On the way back from the town hall the imperial car passed a youth named Gavrilo Prinzip, standing on the curb, who calmly drew a revolver and fired twice. The first shot fatally wounded the duchess, the second pierced the neck of the archduke, severing the jugular vein. Both died without uttering a word.

Prinzip was arrested. He denied any knowledge of Gabrinovics, and declared that the first attempt at assassination was a surprise to him. He said he was a Serbian student, and had for long entertained the idea of killing some eminent person.

The Austrian authorities immediately promulgated the story that they had discovered an anti-dynastic plot, the source of which was in Serbia.

The circumstances of the assassination have led many people to believe that it was deliberately planned, not by Bosnians or Serbians, but by Austrians and

German soldiers decorated for exceptional bravery during the Battle of Verdun. These soldiers are being rewarded for making one of the many furious attacks on the Verdun front.



Picture of the German submarine mothership, Vulcan, taken in the Kiel Canal. On either side are seven German submarines and in front is a craft entering the "dock" ship.

Germans who desired a pretext for attacking Serbia as the initial step toward recovering the Bagdad corridor and opening the road to world conquest. It is assuredly true that the taking off of the archduke coincided exactly with the culmination of Prussia's preparations for war. It is, too, rather extraordinary that Prinzip, the youth who killed him, was sentenced to twenty years imprisonment instead of to death. In a country where the death penalty was common, twenty years imprisonment for the murderer of the heir to the throne seems strangely lenient.

The Arch Conspirators—The Ex-Kaiser, Ferdinand of Bulgaria, the Ex-Sultan of Turkey, and the late Franz Josef of Austria.

The world was slow to realize the significance of the Serajevo tragedy. People were horrified at the deed, and editorials were written denouncing anarchy; but no one seemed to see—at first—the figures of war and famine and pestilence walking in the funeral procession of the dead archduke.

In the chancelleries of Europe, however, there was much anxiety. In London, Paris, Rome and Petrograd men conversant with European affairs realized that a serious situation had developed involving grave possibilities.

Early in July it was rumored in diplomatic circles that Austria-Hungary was planning drastic reprisals for what she alleged was a Serbian crime, committed, if not with the authority, at least with the sympathy of the Serbian government.

Then Count Tisza, at that time premier of Austria, reassured the capitals of Europe by a speech in the Austrian parliament in which he held out strong hope that there would be an amicable settlement of the whole matter. Apprehensions were allayed, and the world thought it saw the war cloud passing.

One week later Austria sent an ultimatum to Serbia, demanding a reply in 48 hours.

The ultimatum recited the facts of the assassination and alleged that the crime was due to Serbia's tolerance of propaganda and intrigue against the peace and territory of the dual monarchy. It demanded that the Serbian government should condemn this propaganda and utterly suppress it.

The German Offensive: The New Methods by Which It Was Pursued and How It Was Countered. The G
Germany made her advances on the Western Front. The new method was devised by the famous v

ng position
enting ENEMY
ng large TOWN
LINE of GENERAL ATTACK & BOMBARDMENT
ENEMY REINFORCEMENTS CONVERGING UPON THE POINT of CONCENTRATED ATTACK
MASSED GERMAN TROOPS poured in continuously to the ATTACK
HIGH GROUND SCREENING the MASSING of ENE
LINE of GENERAL BOMBARDMENT & ACTIVITY

dea—This diagram does not represent any particular battle or area, but illustrates the principles by which
hardi, who was pooh-poohed for his ideas by the German General Staff at the outbreak of the war.

Count Von Bernstorff
The German arch conspirator and ex-ambassador.

The ultimatum then continued:

In order to give a formal character to this undertaking the royal Servian government shall publish on the front page of its official journal of the 26th June (13th July) the following declaration:

"The royal government of Servia condemns the propaganda directed against Austria-Hungary—i. e., the general tendency of which the final aim is to detach from the Austro-Hungarian monarchy territories belonging to it, and it sincerely deplores the fatal consequences of these criminal proceedings.

"The royal government regrets that Servian officers and functionaries participated in the above mentioned propaganda and thus compromised the good neighborly relations to which the royal government was solemnly pledged by its declaration of the 31st March, 1909.

Supersubmarine Deutschland which arrived at Baltimore after a trip across the Atlantic.

"The royal government, which disapproves and repudiates all idea of interfering or attempting to interfere with the destinies of the inhabitants of any part whatsoever of Austria-Hungary, considers it its duty formally to warn officers and functionaries, and the whole population of the kingdom, that henceforward it will proceed with the utmost rigor against persons who may be guilty of such machinations, which it will use all its efforts to anticipate and suppress."

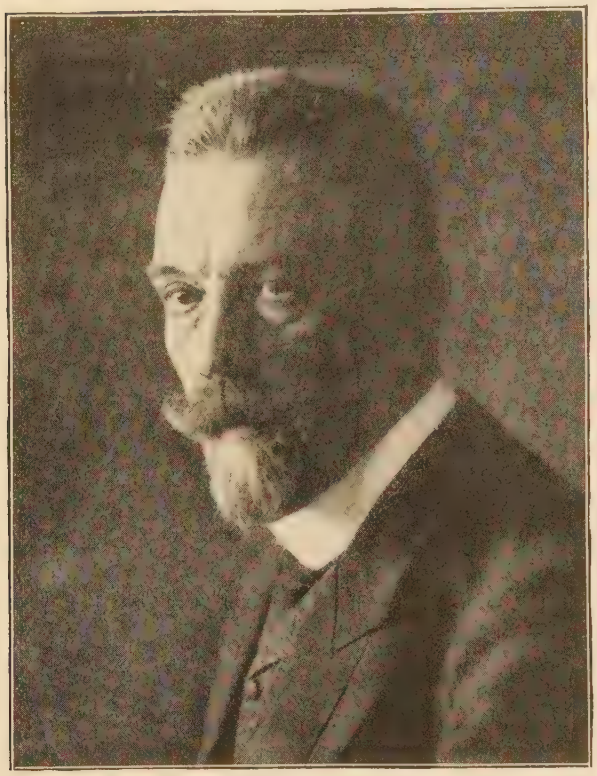
This declaration shall simultaneously be communicated to the royal army as an order of the day by his majesty the king and shall be published in the official bulletin of the army.

The royal Servian government further undertakes:

1. To suppress any publication which incites to hatred and contempt of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy and the

Alfred Zimmerman, Germany's ex-foreign minister.

One of the German Sanitary Posts before Laon.



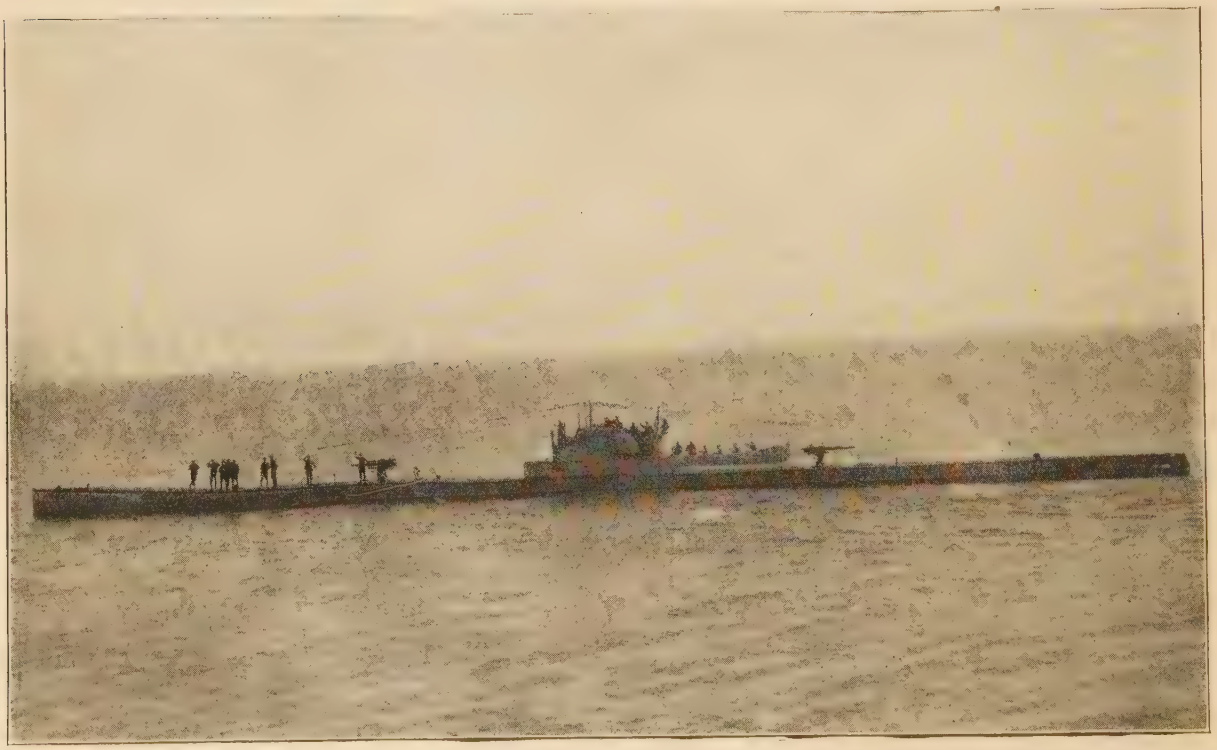
Bethman Hollweg, the weak-minded member of the Ex-kaiser's War Board.

general tendency of which is directed against its territorial integrity;

2. To dissolve immediately the society styled Narodna Odbrana, to confiscate all its means of propaganda, and to proceed in the same manner against other societies and their branches in Servia which engage in propaganda against the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. The royal government shall take the necessary measures to prevent the societies dissolved from continuing their activity under another name and form;

3. To eliminate without delay from public instruction in Servia, both as regards the teaching body and also as regards the methods of instruction, everything that serves, or might serve, to foment the propaganda against Austria-Hungary;

4. To remove from the military service, and from the administration in gen-



Remarkable Photograph of German Submarine U 65, Terror of the Sea, in Act of Holding up Liner. This is probably the only photograph showing a German U-boat actually holding up a liner at sea to arrive in America.

eral, all officers and functionaries guilty of propaganda against the Austro-Hungarian monarchy whose names and deeds the Austro-Hungarian government reserves to itself the right of communicating to the royal government;

5. To accept the collaboration in Serbia of representatives of the Austro-Hungarian government in the suppression of the subversive movement directed against the territorial integrity of the monarchy;

6. To take judicial proceedings against accessories to the plot of the 28th June who are on Servian territory. Delegates of the Austro-Hungarian government will take part in the investigation relating thereto;

7. To proceed without delay to the arrest of Major Voija Tankositch and of the individual named Milan Ciganovitch, a Servian state employe, who have been compromised by the results of the magisterial inquiry at Serajevo;

8. To prevent by effective measures the co-operation of the Servian authorities

General Von Hindenburg, commander-in-chief, and his chief of staff.

This Photo was taken in 1914. The Crowds were Optimistic.

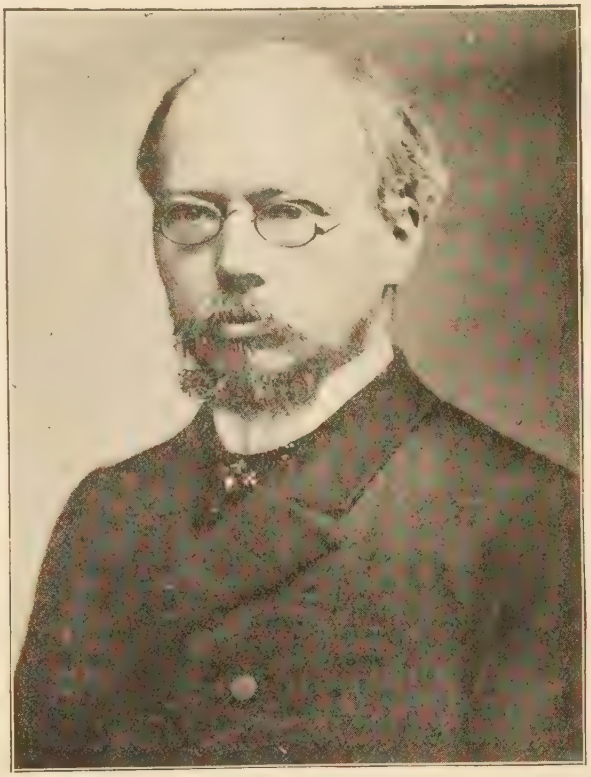
Type of Germany's Long-Distance Bombing Machines.

in the illicit traffic of arms and explosives across the frontier, to dismiss and punish severely the officials of the frontier service at Schabatz and Loznica guilty of having assisted the perpetrators of the Serajevo crime by facilitating their passage across the frontier;

9. To furnish the imperial and royal government with explanations regarding the unjustifiable utterances of high Serbian officials, both in Servia and abroad, who, notwithstanding their official position, did not hesitate after the crime of the 28th June to express themselves in interviews in terms of hostility to the Austro-Hungarian government; and, finally.

10. To notify the imperial and royal government without delay of the execution of the measures comprised under the preceding heads.

Immediately the terms of the Austrian ultimatum became known in diplomatic



The Late Count George von Hertling, the Ex-Bavarian Prime Minister and Ex-Imperial German Chancellor.

Ukraine and Germany Signing Peace Pact. Germany and her allies on the one side and the newly created Ukrainian state on the other concluding a treaty of peace.

circles in Europe there was consternation. It was seen that Austria had imposed conditions no nation could accept without an utter humbling. The war cloud gathered again, darker and more threatening than before.

We have since learned, through the disclosures made by Dr. Muehlon, the former Krupp director to whom I have already referred, that the kaiser had a hand in drafting this drastic document. He was consulted by Austria, and approved its form without consulting his

Meantime the European chancelleries were vibrant with nervous agitation. The telegraph and cable were carrying coded messages from ambassadors to their governments, and apprehension of the most serious results was everywhere felt.

Serbia's reply came within the allotted time. It amazed the world by its almost complete concession to Austria. Practically all of the eleven demands but one were accepted without modification. Serbia declined to permit the agents of Austria to prosecute investigations on Serbian

Royal Family of Germany.

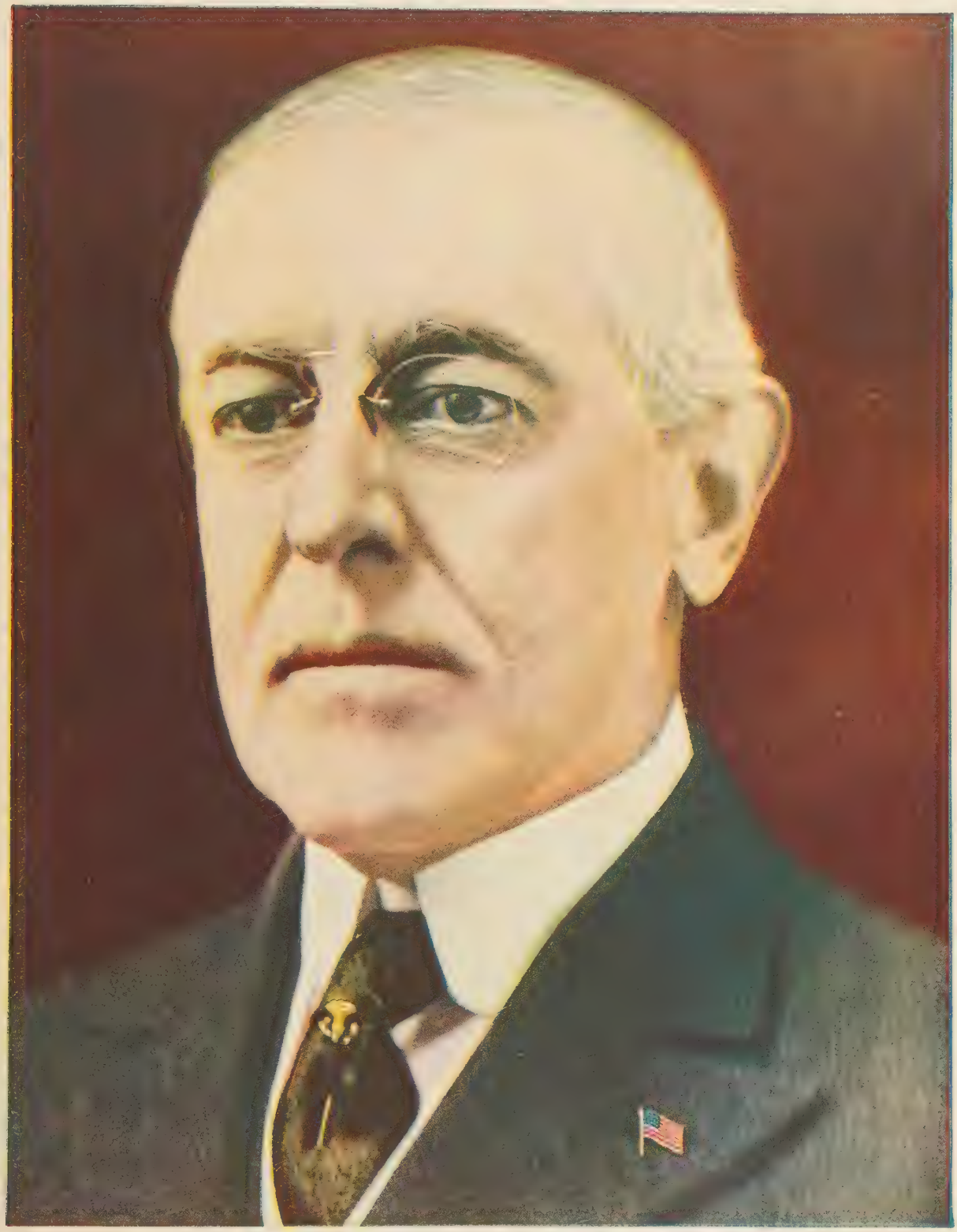
William II, Ex-Emperor of Germany and Ex-King of Prussia, married the Ex-Princess Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Austenburg. He has six sons and one daughter. The Ex-Crown Prince Frederick William, married the Ex-Duchess Cecilie of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The Ex-Emperor's sister, Sophia is the wife of Constantine, Ex-King of the Hellenes. Ex-Prince Henry, his brother, married his cousin, Ex-Princess Irene of Hesse, daughter of the late Ex-Princess Alice of England. The Ex-Emperor's mother was Princess Victoria of England, daughter of Queen Victoria.

advisers, according to the story that Muehlon had from Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg.

The kaiser is said to have told the chancellor he was determined to go thru with his program, and that no one now could turn him back from his purpose. His resolution being thus declared he left for a trip on his royal yacht, a discreet maneuver designed to create the impression that he had no part in the matter.

soil, but agreed to carry out the required investigations and to report progress in suppressing anti-Austrian propaganda to the representatives of the dual monarchy. In conclusion she offered, if Austria were not fully satisfied with these concessions, to submit the whole matter in dispute to The Hague or to any tribunal constituted by the Great Powers.

It was recognized by all impartial observers that a more complete acquiescence



WOODROW WILSON, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

These Huns were photographed using their flame projector in a trench, and while advancing over "No Man's Land."

could not be asked in reason.

The Austrian minister received Serbia's conciliatory reply at Belgrade on July 25, 1914, at 5:45 in the afternoon. He did not even wait to read it. His things were all packed and ready for departure. He put the manuscript in his dispatch box, and left Belgrade at once for Vienna, thus severing diplomatic relations without ceremony.

It was evident that Austria wanted trouble. The ultimatum had been designed not to obtain a settlement of difficulties, but to promote war.

Great Britain immediately took up the task of preventing an outbreak of hostilities. She proposed to Germany, on July 27, that the matters at issue between Austria and Serbia be submitted to a conference of representatives from Germany, France, Italy and Great Britain. Italy was then a member of the triple alliance, of which the two other members were Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Germany declined the proposal by which peace might have been preserved, alleging that the controversy between Austria and Serbia involved the honor of Austria and could not be submitted to adjudication by disinterested parties. Russia, Serbia's friend, opened direct negotiations with Vienna, and these were proceeding more or less encouragingly when they suddenly terminated, and Vienna refused to negotiate further. There is strong foundation for the belief that Germany intervened to prevent an understanding between Vienna and St. Petersburg.

Meantime Austria mobilized her armies and Serbia responded by like action. There was some talk of localizing the trouble, and permitting a punitive expedition against Serbia, but it ended in talk. Russia, realizing that her interests in the Balkans and in the Dardanelles were menaced by the threat of Austria to drive down toward the Aegean Sea thru Serbia, mobilized five army corps behind the Vistula. The mobilization was far from the

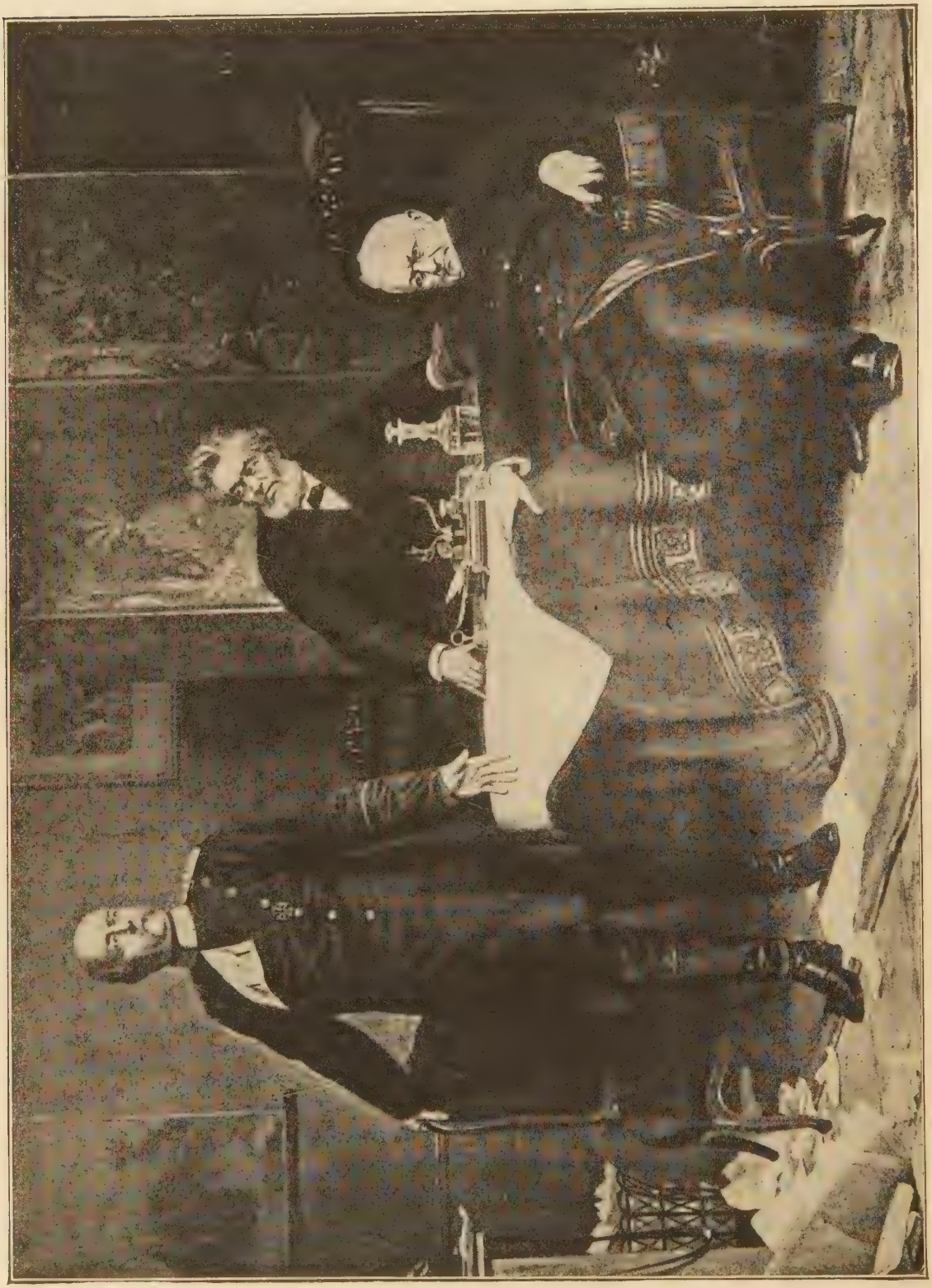
The Ex-Kaiser in Austrian Uniform. The Shriveled Left Arm Is Quite Noticeable.

frontiers of the central empires and constituted no immediate threat.

On July 28 Austria formally declared war against Serbia, and began an immediate movement of her forces toward the Serbian frontiers on the Save and Danube. Russia, alarmed by this indication that Austria was determined to conquer the little Slav monarchy that looked to her as protector, and that stood as a barrier between Germany and the east, at once began mobilization in her southwestern provinces.

Thus far there had been no direct threat to Germany, but the kaiser on the same day mobilized his fleet—an act that carried with it a very clear menace to Great Britain.

By July 29 the Austrian guns were bombarding Belgrade from the north side



Bismarck Making the Harshest Terms in History to the French Representatives in 1870.

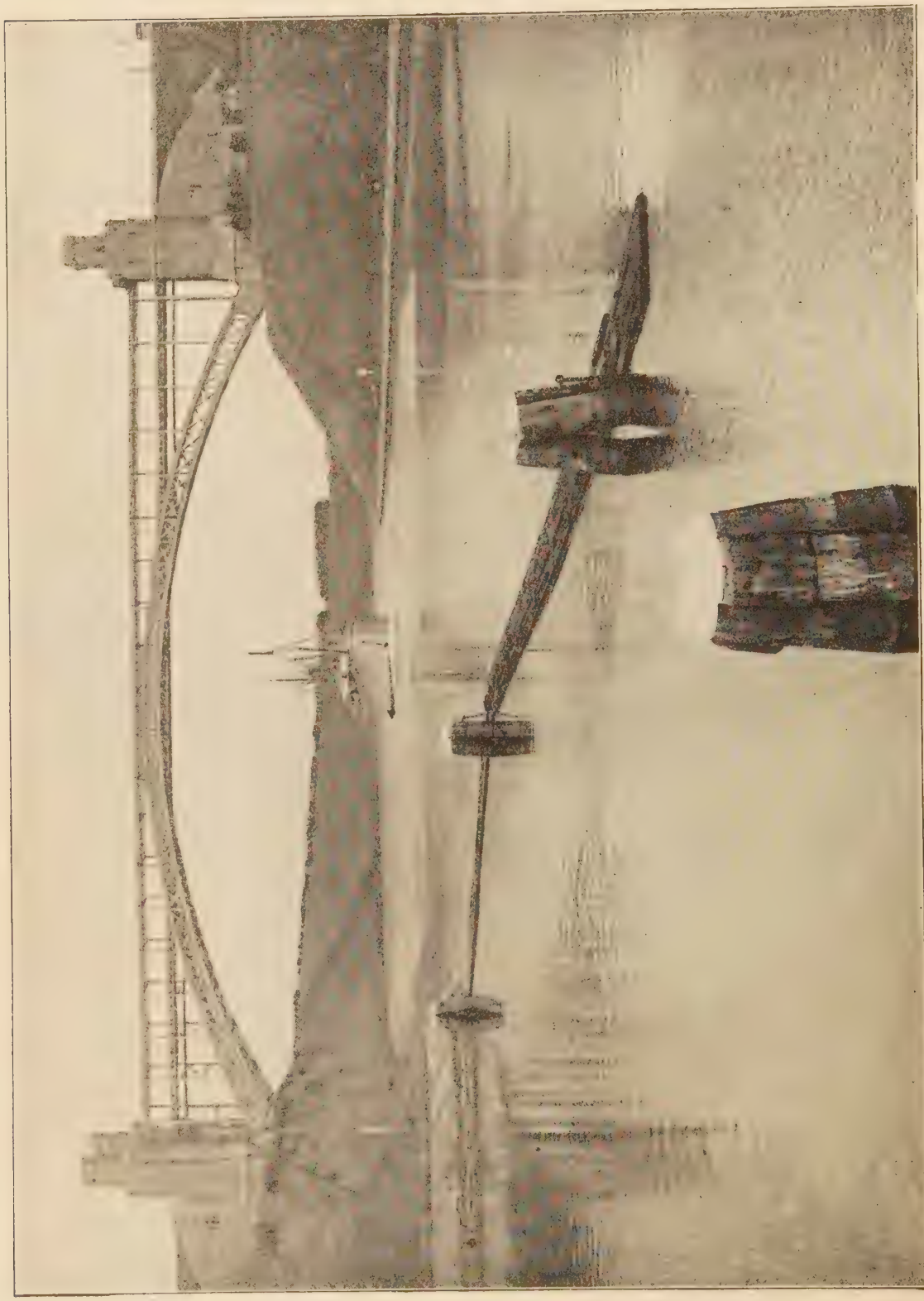
of the Danube, and the world was aroused to the fact that the long predicted European war could be averted only by some miracle.

The semi-official Lokal Anzeiger, of Berlin, issued an extra edition about noon of July 30, announcing that a decree had been issued for the general mobilization of the German army. The news was flashed at once to St. Petersburg. The edition was promptly suppressed by the authorities, but it had accomplished its purpose. It may never be known whether it was originally printed with authority and in order to provoke a belligerent response from Russia, and then suppressed to complete the case for innocence that Germany hoped to lay before the world in convincing fashion.

Its suppression was followed by a peremptory demand from Berlin that Rus-

Capt. Boy-ed, ex-attache of Germany to U. S.

The German Offensive. The Guard Grenadier Regiment who were taken prisoners by the British.



The Kiel Canal, Which Unites the North Sea with the Baltic.

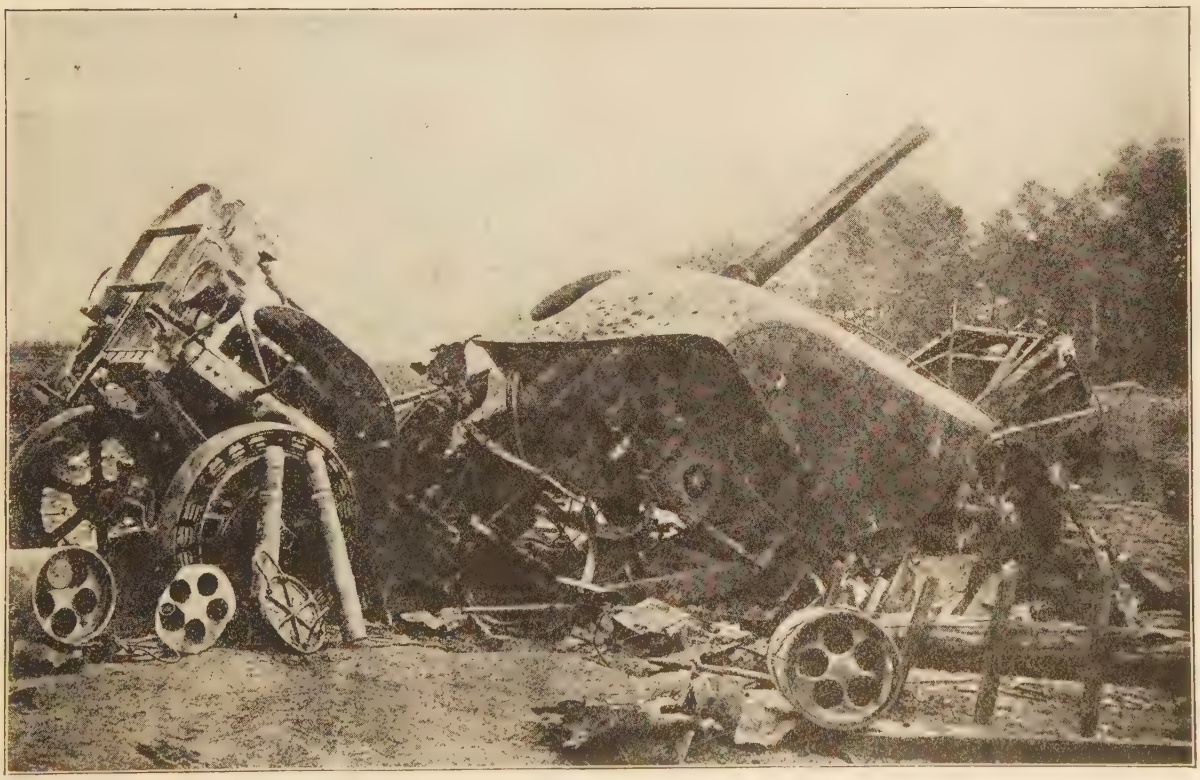
sia cease mobilization within twenty-four hours. But Russia, apprised that Germany was mobilizing, refused to accede to this demand and ordered a general mobilization.

The efforts of Great Britain had failed either to avert or to localize the war. France, alarmed by the swift movements of the central empires and their implacable spirit, was calling out her troops. She held them, however, at a discreet distance from the frontier, avoiding as far as possible needless provocation.

Realizing now that a general European war was inevitable; that France and Russia were certain to be involved with Germany and Austria, Great Britain made one last effort to avert the worst possible consequences—she addressed a note to Paris and Berlin, asking both governments to respect the neutrality of Belgium.

A prompt reply was received from France, agreeing unconditionally. Germany made no answer. Her plans were

Dr. Richard von Kuehlmann, ex-member Russian Peace Conference.



One Shot from a French 305 Battery did this to a German 88M Gun. The first shot aimed at the gun struck it clear amidship.

The German Fleet on Way to Surrender to the Allied Forces.

already laid for the invasion of Belgium. It was the most convenient route to Paris, and Prussia considers nothing but her own interests.

On August 1 Germany formally declared war on Russia and made public her suppressed mobilization order.

Great Britain followed this action by informing France that her fleet would undertake to protect the French north coast against German invasion. On the same day the first hostilities opened the struggle on the west front when a German patrol crossed the French frontier at Cirey. The French immediately began the movement of their troops toward the frontier. Their preparations were made to defend the line from Luxembourg south to Switzerland, along the Alsace-Lorraine border. The invasion of Alsace was planned as a counter-stroke to the

Captain Franz von Papen, Ex-German Military Attache,

British Capture Line of Luxurious German Dugouts in Sunken Road.

Field Marshal Von Mackensen who led the Austro-German Forces on the Italian Front.

German threat.

They relied upon the neutrality of Belgium and Luxembourg as protection against invasion over an almost unfortified frontier.

But on August 3 Germany addressed a demand to Belgium for free passage across her territory. The little country did not hesitate. She returned a prompt refusal, and mobilized her small army to meet the menace that immediately overshadowed her. Her refusal was at once followed by a declaration of war against her. A like declaration was simultaneously made against France, and the armies of Germany began the attack.

On the afternoon of August 3 German troops entered the little Belgian town of Arion, while Chancellor Von Bethmann Hollweg explained to the reichstag that military necessity compelled Germany to commit a wrong against Belgium for which reparation would be made.

Clinging to an eleventh hour hope Great Britain addressed to Berlin an ultimatum, allowing twenty-four hours for reply, in which she demanded that the neutrality of Belgium be respected.

The ultimatum was delivered by Sir W. E. Goschen, British ambassador to Berlin, on the afternoon of August 4. Herr Von Jagow, the German secretary for foreign affairs, received it in person, and gave an immediate answer in the negative. He said it was impossible for Germany to observe the neutrality of Belgium since her troops had already crossed the frontier. He argued that Germany had to take this course in order to prevent France attacking her thru Belgium. He ignored the fact that France had already given her word that she would observe the obligation of Belgian neutrality, and that Great Britain, had France broken her word, would have been compelled to deal with her as she later dealt with Germany.

The British ambassador asked if he might see the chancellor, unwilling to take Von Jagow's reply as final. He was granted permission. Von Bethmann Hollweg appeared much perturbed. He talked for twenty minutes, haranguing Great Britain's representative in tones pleading and upbraiding. He declared it seemed impossible that Great Britain was going to make war on a friendly neighbor merely for the little word "neutrality" that had been disregarded so often in history, merely for a "scrap of paper."

The interview ended unavailingly. Sir W. E. Goschen prepared at once to leave Berlin. That evening the British embassy was mobbed.

At midnight in London a vast throng gathered in Trafalgar Square, awaiting the issue of the momentous ultimatum. As the great clock in the tower of Westminster struck the fateful hour it was announced that a state of war existed between Great Britain and Germany.

There was a moment's silence. Then a great cheer went up, and the multitude melted silently away.

Devastated Country Evacuated by the Retreating German Army Under Hindenburg.

CAMOUFLAGE ARTISTS CHANGING A MONSTER GUN INTO A "PIECE OF LANDSCAPE" NO

E BRILLIANT COLORING WHICH BLENDS COMPLETELY WITH ITS SURROUNDINGS

Flames on the Flanders Battlefield. How Fritz wielded his Flammenwerfer.

The Armies Are Unleashed

CHAPTER III

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA HAD TWO MILLION MEN READY — GREAT BRITAIN'S ARMY WEAK — FRANCE WELL PREPARED — BELGIUM AND SERBIA REASONABLY WELL EQUIPPED — GERMANY'S DRIVE THROUGH BELGIUM — ALLIED REVERSES — GERMANY'S ENORMOUS STRENGTH CRUSHES ALLIES.

Great Britain, Russia, France and Belgium were now embroiled in war with Germany. Austria-Hungary was at war with Serbia, and almost immediately became a belligerent against the other allies.

Germany had 25 first line army corps ready for action, numbering approximately 1,000,000 men; she had twenty-five additional reserve corps of like number. On the day that hostilities began there were at least 2,000,000 German soldiers available, and this number was soon increased by another 1,500,000.

Austria-Hungary had a first line army of about 1,000,000 well trained soldiers, with reserves of less number than those of Germany, but material that was rapidly converted which brought her total force up to approximately 3,000,000 before many weeks had elapsed.

Turkey, soon to enter the war as an ally of the central empires, was a nation of soldiers. In later years they had been trained by German officers. She is estimated to have had about 750,000 good soldiers subject to mobilization when the war began.

Bulgaria, whose decision to link her fortunes with Germany came only after much hesitation and a cool and calculated bargaining, had probably a little less than half a million men fit for the field.

Great Britain, whose reliance was placed upon her navy, was notably weak militarily. Her regular army, at home and in the colonies, numbered only 156,100 men. She had a territorial or militia force numbering 251,000. Her native troops in India and her volunteer soldiers of the overseas dominions, including cadets and members of rifle clubs, did not exceed half a million.

France, a military country, was in much better situation. She began the war with nearly 4,000,000 trained men between the ages of 19 and 48, of whom 2,500,000 belonged to the active army and its reserves, the remainder constituting the territorial army.

Accurate figures as to Russia's military strength have always been difficult to obtain. Her available man power was enormous. It is estimated that she had 28,000,000 men between the ages of twenty and forty-three who could be drawn upon for military service in August 1914. It is probable that at least twenty-five per cent of this number was called to the colors—or 7,000,000 men—before the war had continued many weeks. Perhaps one-half that number was sent to the long fighting front.

Italy, who came into the war on the side of the allies in the spring of 1915, had about 1,200,000 fully trained soldiers. 800,000 partly trained, and a million more untrained but available for call.

Belgium had only 120,000 men with which to meet the armies of Germany when they crossed her frontier. This force was later increased to a quarter of a million.

Serbia mobilized 350,000 to face the Austrian invasion.

Such was the approximate strength of the opposing forces at the beginning of the great struggle.

It was recognized that Germany had the best organized army in Europe. Its equipment was perfect in every detail. Not a necessary thing had been overlooked that was within range of human foresight. Every officer was provided with maps, showing in detail the cities,

towns and villages, the roads and railroads, the rivers, forests and elevations of Belgium and France.

For years the trucks used for peace transport in Germany had been built so as to be available for war purposes.

shells began to fall upon the Belgian defenses. Then they were a nightmare to the world.

Germany's decision to attack France thru Belgium was due to the topographical difficulties in the way of a successful

A German Lookout in a Waterproof Trench. A view of a sandbag-constructed trench on the German battlefront in the Western battle zone showing how carefully the trench has been water-proofed.

Never had any nation in arms been prepared with every type of known fighting weapon as Germany was prepared. She had guns more powerful than the world had dreamed of, until their 42 centimeter

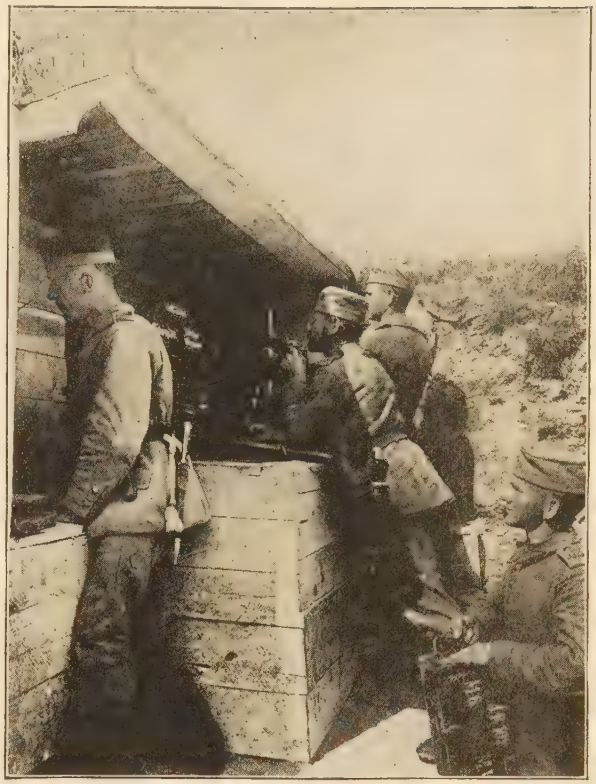
advance from Alsace-Lorraine. Paris lies within a series of natural escarpments that run in a north and south direction across France to the east of the capital. The outermost is that of the Vosges

mountains; moving toward Paris the next is the heights of the Meuse; then comes the eastern edge of the Champagne, and, nearest Paris, the hills that extend from the region of Laon to the Seine.

After the war of 1870 France strongly fortified the line of the Meuse. The Verdun-Toul-Epinal-Belfort defensive barrier is famous. This Germany would have been compelled to storm, after crossing the Vosges, had she observed the neutrality of Belgium, and struck France directly from her own territory.

There are gaps in the line, but they were readily defensible and offered only narrow entrances for the immense force with which Germany planned to overwhelm her neighbor. The gap of Stenay lies between the Ardennes forest and the Meuse heights; the Toul-Epinal gap is made by the valley of the Moselle, and the Belfort gap lies between the southern end of the Meuse escarpment and the mountains of Switzerland.

By sweeping thru Belgium the enemy hoped to circumvent the escarpments at their northern end, and to reach Paris over ground vastly freer from obstacles.



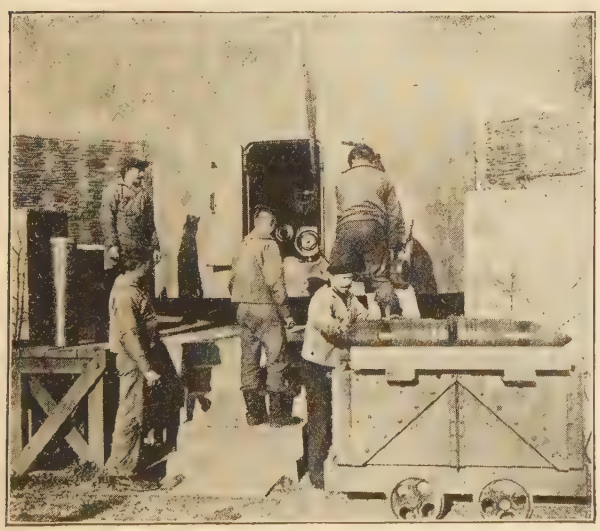
Teuton Machine Gun in Action Under Bomb-Proof Shelter.

Germany had two main foes to consider when she began her campaigns—France and Russia. She anticipated no appreciable resistance from Belgium. She knew the military weakness of Great Britain, and feared chiefly her fleet. Russia, she reasoned, would be slow in mobilizing and reaching her frontiers.

Hence it was her plan to drive France to her knees in a swift, smashing blow, and then to turn and deal with Russia before the Slavic giant mustered his strength and became dangerous.

Of the twenty-six army corps that she had available for an immediate use she sent twenty against France and six to hold Russia in check.

She began her attack by occupying the Duchy of Luxembourg, to the east of Belgium. It was an easy victory. Luxem-



Armorplated Battery on the Flanders Coast. Back View of the Armorplated Gun Turret.

bourg had no army to oppose invasion. The Duchess went out to meet the advance guard of the enemy and made formal, but futile, protest against the outrage that was planned.

The capital of Luxembourg was seized, and its railroads taken over by the Germans. The latter were, of course, of considerable value for the transport of troops to the French frontier.

Meantime three German divisions had reached the Belgian frontier opposite the Meuse fortress of Liege. On the night of August 4th they moved to the attack.

Liege is surrounded by six large pentagonal forts, and as many smaller ones. General Leman, a brave Belgian officer, famous as a mathematician, commanded the garrison, and made every possible preparation for stubborn resistance.

On the fifth and again on the sixth the enemy attempted to storm the forts after a heavy bombardment. He was driven back with heavy losses, and an amazed world began to wonder whether little Belgium would halt the foe on the very threshold of his campaign. But the world had much to learn of Prussian power. A third storming effort was made on August 7, and the enemy succeeded in entering that part of the city lying east of the Meuse. General Leman withdrew his troops to the west bank of the river.

French Armored Cruisers "Jaureguiberry" and "Bouvet" in Speed Trials.

On the seventh a German siege train arrived carrying heavier guns, and the monster 42 centimeter shells were hurled against the remaining forts of the beleaguered city. The bombardment was terrific, and the forts crumbled under the ponderous impact.

But it was not until August 15 that the last of the Liege forts yielded. They had

served a great purpose. Belgium's magnificent but sacrificial effort had delayed the armies of Germany for two weeks, giving the French time to prepare their defense and the British to mobilize their little army and hasten it across the channel to the scene of hostilities.

On August 7, the day that the Germans entered Liege, the French began their invasion of Alsace. It was designed as a flank attack on the enemy, and, in theory, was wisely planned. But the French movement was too long delayed to be successful. The enemy had moved more rapidly and was already on the ground with strong forces. Moreover the German success at Liege developed at once a serious threat to the French northern frontier that made further offensive adventure in Alsace imprudent. It was necessary to concentrate in order to meet the menace of a sweep thru Belgium.

The British expeditionary force, under General Sir John French, and numbering only some 80,000 men, landed in France on August 8, and immediately moved forward to join the French who were advancing into Belgium.

Meantime the enemy was sweeping across northern Belgium, outraging the civilian inhabitants of the little towns and villages, burning and pillaging. Behind was a trail of blood and ruin.

The three women were found operating machine-guns during the American advance.

Searching skies for the enemy air fleet. Searchlight in full activity; to the left an officer observing the movements of an enemy aeroplane.

The French armies took up defensive positions on a line beginning at Montmedy and extending northwest along the Meuse to Mezieres, and thence north to Dinant. From Dinant the line ran west to Charleroi. The British assumed positions to the left of the French, north of Mons. The second French army was holding positions along the Alsace-Lorraine border, its right wing resting in upper Alsace near Mulhouse and its left near Nancy.

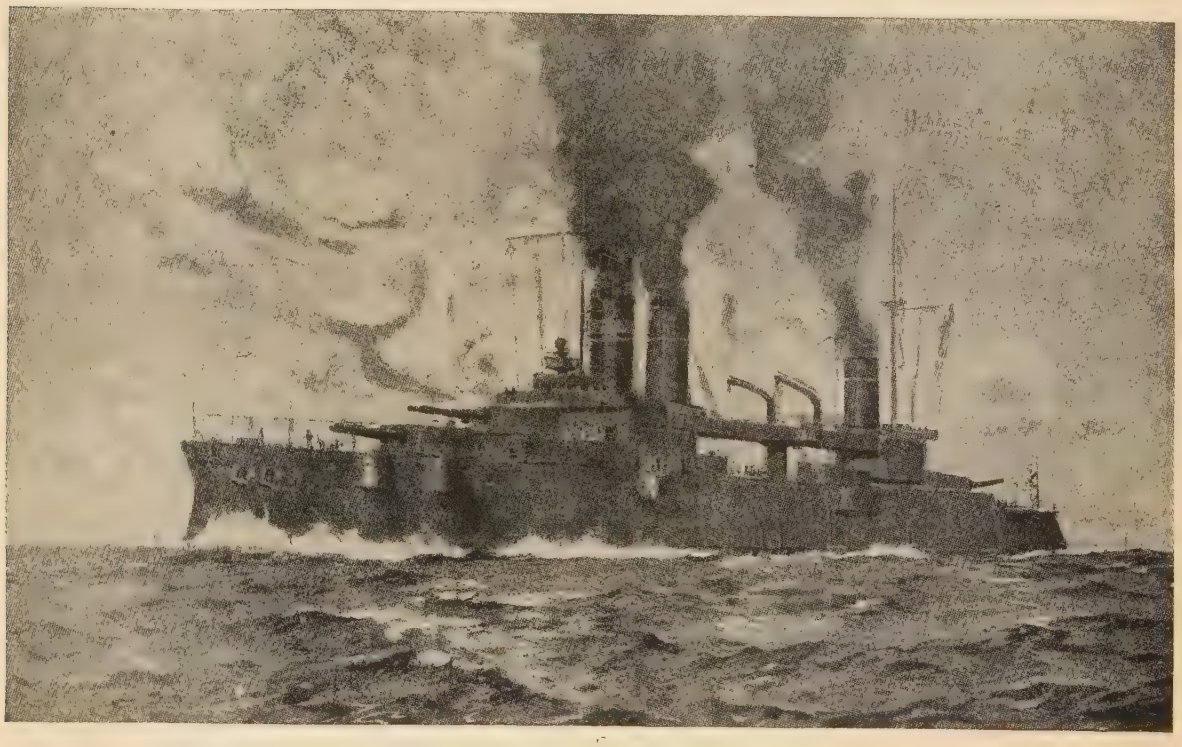
The Belgians evacuated Brussels, retiring on Antwerp. In this way they saved one of the most beautiful capitals from otherwise inevitable destruction. On

August 20 the Germans occupied Brussels, taking over the administration of the city.

The dismayed civilians lined the streets and watched the endless procession of enemy soldiers, clad in their gray uniforms, marching with monotonous rythm thru the city. They marched with heads erect and the confidence of conquerors. They were on their way to Paris, and not one of them doubted that he would reach the great French capital within a few days time.

On August 22 the Germans, after a brief assault, captured the Belgian fortress of Namur, at the junction of the Meuse and Sambre rivers. Namur was the last stronghold between them and the allied armies. Its sudden capitulation came with the shock of surprise. It had been thought it might hold at least as long as did Liege. But the big siege guns, that were a few days late in reaching Liege, were on time at Namur, and made it a heap of ruins in a few hours.

The battleground was now cleared for the first great test of strength between the enemy and the allied armies of Great Britain and France. Von Kluck commanded the right wing of the advancing foe; the left wing was commanded by the Duke of Wurtemburg; the center was held by troops under Von Bulow and Von Hausen.



Great German Battleship "Ersatz Bavern" Among Those Surrendered.

The Crown Prince of Germany, commanding the Fifth army, was advancing from Luxembourg.

The French troops reeled backward under the smashing blow of the enemy. Along the line Mezieres-Dinant-Charleroi they retired fighting toward Rethel and Hirson. Between Mezieres and Longwy they staggered under the attack of the Crown Prince, and retreated toward

Chalons, thru the Argonne forest.

The little British army in front of Mons was left without support, and had to face the full strength of the enemy First army under Von Kluck. It fought a gallant battle, outnumbered three to one. The enemy attempted to drive the British into the entrenched camp of Maubeuge, but the masterly tactics of Sir John French defeated his purpose.

There then began one of the most notable retreats in history—the retreat of the British army from Mons. It held the vital position on the left wing of the allied forces. It had for its task the supreme duty of preventing an enveloping movement.

From the time the retreat began it was the aim of Von Kluck to outflank the allies, swing around their left wing and intercept their retirement on Paris.

Had he succeeded in this disaster might have overtaken the armies of France and Great Britain, and the victory might have been gained by Germany before her opponents had time to rally. But Sir John French with his 80,000 men managed to hold Von Kluck and 240,000 at bay. In four days he retreated 64 miles—an average of 16 miles a day—fighting courageous rear-guard actions on every mile, and occasionally halting to strike a more than usually hard blow against his pitiless pursuers.

A Successful Submarine Torpedo Attack, Cruiser Destroyed by An "Assassin of the Sea."

Effective retreat calls for as high generalship as effective attack. It is a much harder test of morale. Giving ground is always discouraging to the rank and file and taxing upon the nerve and endurance of officers, who must maintain a spirit of hope and confidence whatever happens.

As the allied armies retired the world

Palace of Justice, Brussels, Belgium.

watched with keen anxiety. Germany was exultant, but nations that loved France and admired Paris contemplated with alarm and consternation the possibility that the great capital of light and life and youth might suffer as Belgian cities had suffered, or that the nation whose spirit it embodied might be forced to yield to the invading foe.

For six days, from August 22 to August 28, the fate of the allied armies hung in the balance. The Germans had another opportunity to win a Sedan. The crisis was reached on August 26, when the British met the full force of Von Kluck's offensive — five army corps against two. The British were standing on the line of Cambrai-LeCateau-Landrecies, and preparing to retire, when the blow fell. It was met with supreme courage.

Re-enforcements had been asked from the French, but no help was sent, and the British were compelled to fight alone. Had they failed Paris would have been lost, because Von Kluck would have driven between Paris and the French right wing, rolling back the French armies and compelling them to fight at a serious disadvantage for their very existence. The capital city would have been left without other protection than its fortifications and garrison—utterly insufficient for defense under the new conditions of warfare.

But the British repulsed the enemy onslaught, and General French succeeded in good order upon St. Quentin. Here he obtained the help he had asked, and thus supported he again faced the enemy and fought a vigorous delaying battle with him in which was inflicted heavy losses.

By September 1 the allied armies had fallen back to within 40 miles of Paris, and the second line of French defenses had been taken by the enemy. There was as yet no sign from General Joffre, commanding the French armies, that he had any intention of halting and offering a stabilized resistance.

The line as it retreated was pivoting on Verdun. Along the Verdun-Toul fortifications the enemy was completely checked, while at Nancy the French army, that had been driven ignominiously from Lorraine, was retrieving its honor by a magnificent and stubborn defense.

The left wing of the retreating Anglo-French armies came under the protection of the guns of the Paris forts on September 3. It had won the race. Von Kluck's efforts to outflank and envelope had failed.

The allied armies were now buttressed between the great entrenched camp of Paris and the fortified line of Verdun-Toul. In the center they bent crescentically south of the Marne.

The supreme moment for which General Joffre had waited silently and imperturbably was now at hand. He had yielded all of northern France to reach this position, and here he elected to make his stand and risk conclusive battle with the enemy.

Immense Ammunition Dumps Captured by Allies.

King Albert and his Queen Entering Brussels

Prussian Plans Go Astray

CHAPTER IV

GERMAN DRIVE WEAKENS — JOFFRE STOPS GERMAN ADVANCE AT VERDUN — FRENCH RESERVES FROM PARIS BOLSTER LINE — BELGIANS CHECK GERMANS ELSEWHERE — GREAT BRITAIN HOLDS LINE AT YPRES.

The whole carefully elaborated plan of campaign for a quick and crushing triumph of Prussia over her enemies and rivals required the occupation of Paris and the paralysis of the French and British armies in not more than six weeks' time.

Every day's delay increased the menace on the German eastern front where comparatively few troops had been left to watch the Russians.

General Joffre, of course, realized this fact. He also realized that the further the German armies pursued him into France the longer the distance over which they must maintain communications and bring transport.

The region of the Marne was known in every topographical detail to Joffre and his subordinates. The French army had often held maneuvers along the river valley and on the heights that border it. The opportunities for employing tactics and developing strategy had all been carefully studied.

The battle line from Paris to Verdun was some 180 miles in length. Paris had ceased to be the French capital, and become merely a great camp, ready to defend itself if need be against siege or storming attack. The French government removed to Bordeaux on September 3, just as General Von Kluck, now only 25 miles to the north at Senlis, discovered that the British had eluded him, and that his last chance to turn the exposed left flank of the allied armies was gone.

Von Kluck could not storm Paris directly. He could not go around it on the west without breaking the continuity of the German line and exposing himsel and his comrades to certain disaster. There was only one thing left for him to do—to swing across in front of Paris and assume positions in which he could assist the German armies to the east of him in attacking the allied center.

Von Kluck violated a Napoleonic aphorism in venturing to swing across Paris and turn his flank toward his opponent, but he was convinced the allies were a beaten foe, lacking either the spirit or the resourcefulness to accept the opportunity his movement might offer.

He reckoned without Joffre. The silent, unworried and unhurried French strategist had foreseen what Von Kluck would be compelled to do at the time when the German general saw nothing but the possibility of outflanking Joffre and the British.

The longer-visioned Frenchman had ambushed an army, under Maunoury, in the region of Amiens. This army had no part in the retreat. It was a surprise prepared for use at the right moment.

Joffre had another surprise in readiness. He had placed the man whom he considered the ablest strategist in Europe at the head of another army, as yet unused. There has been some mystery about the seventh army commanded by General

Belgium Soldiers cutting wire entanglements in No Man's Land. A successful raid followed.

Foch at the battle of the Marne. It was three corps strong—120,000 men.

I have heard a story—that I am unable to confirm—concerning the part played by Italy at this critical time. Italy had declared her neutrality, altho an ally of Germany and Austria when the war began. But France, never at any time a cordial friend of Italy, as a matter of wise precaution had to watch the Franco-Italian frontier. It is said that two army corps were delegated to this duty.

Then, so the story goes, word came to the French government from the Italian government that the latter had no intention of becoming involved in the hostilities; that the French frontier was perfectly safe, and that the French were exceedingly foolish if they did not withdraw their two army corps and use them to check the Germans.

The French acted on this suggestion, it is said, and threw into the battle at the critical moment two army corps that the enemy calculated were still employed in watching Italy.

The latest photograph of King Albert, of Belgium.

Queen Elizabeth of Belgium cheered her wounded soldiers at the front.

Whether the story be true or no, it is certain that Joffre met the enemy with greater strength and troops fresher and more vigorous than he expected to encounter.

As Von Kluck swung east, Maunoury, who had slipped down nearer Paris on the heels of the Germans, struck him on his flank. A desperate battle began on the Ourcq river. Von Kluck sent for aid and obtained re-enforcements. He attempted to break thru Maunoury's line and destroy its menace to the German armies, now preparing to attack on the allied center.

But Joffre had a third surprise ready. Every taxi-cab and vehicle in Paris had been employed to make it possible, and the Paris garrison, consisting of a med-

ley of fighting material, gendarmes, Republican guards and others, was rushed to the scene of action. The sudden appearance of the re-enforcements threw consternation into the German ranks. Maunoury's first blow had been a surprise; this threatened second blow was a greater surprise; what might happen if they waited for further developments none could guess, and no one was too anxious to discover by experiment.

So they decided to retreat.

lying his forces with indomitable courage, he struck so heavily that the whole enemy line was thrown into confusion and a general retreat began.

The battle had become an allied victory by September 10, and the German army was hastening toward the Aisne with the French and British in close pursuit.

The retreat of the Germans from the Marne was marked by similar tactics to those characterizing the retreat of the al-

Drilling Belgian recruits in the bayonet charge. The Belgian soldier's efficiency with the bayonet when it came to close quarter fighting was due to incessant drilling.

Meantime the British and the French Fifth army, under D'Esperey, had come into action, smashing a hard blow against Von Kluck's front. The combination was too much. The retreat became almost a rout.

Von Kluck exposed to attack his neighbor Von Buelow, and General Foch now came into action with great dash and vigor. He had suffered heavy losses in defensive action the day before, but, rallies from Mons and Charleroi—except that they were reversed. General von Kluck narrowly escaped the clutches of the British, and the crown prince, who had driven southward thru the Argonne, was in serious peril from the pursuit of the French.

In six days the Germans reached the Aisne, where defensive positions had been prepared and the terrain afforded advantage for resistance. Here they made their

stand.

The struggle now became an effort on the part of the allies to outflank them on their right, and the fighting moved north and east along the Oise, the German line slowly extending in a reach for the protection of the seacoast, and forcing a similar stretching of the enemy's front. The French reoccupied Rheims and Amiens.

Meantime the Belgians were harassing the Germans by sorties from Antwerp, and the continued advance of the allies to aid in the defense. In was quite inadequate for the task, however. On Oct. 5 three of the Antwerp forts fell under the German bombardment. By this time there were skirmishes on the Belgian frontier, and two days later there was fighting near Ypres. The bombardment of the City of Antwerp itself began Oct. 8. On Oct. 10 it surrendered, the Belgian army escaping and reaching Ostend by a detour along the coast. Here it joined the allies, later evacuating the

Covered with mud and glory. Tired out and weary Belgians bespattered with the mud from their inundated fighting ground.

northward toward the Belgian frontier developed a new danger in the possible junction of the Belgian troops with the French and British. On Sept. 20 the Germans began moving siege guns toward Antwerp. By Sept. 29 they were shelling the outer forts of the city. On Oct. 2 the allies had reached Arras, where they met a check. Two days later a detachment of British marines entered Antwerp city and falling back toward Nieuport and Dixmude.

The race to the coast had been won, and a wall of steel was built across the corner of Belgium from Nieuport to Ypres thru which the enemy was never able to drive a path of victory in spite of the most desperate efforts.

A battle front now extended from Nieuport, on the Belgian coast, thru

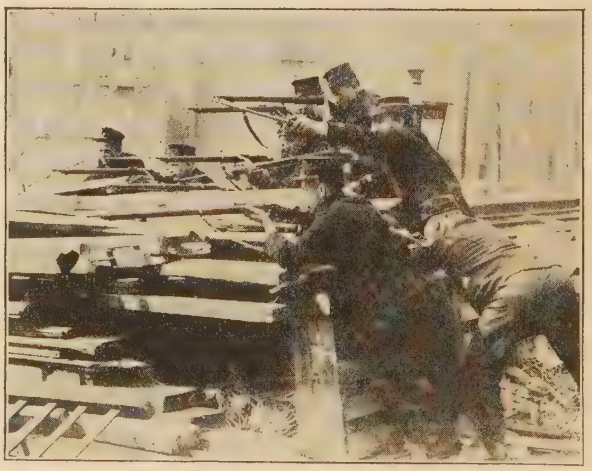
A stricken city—What was left of Ypres, utterly devastated by Germans. A remarkable panoramic view of Ypres at the end of the war.

Ypres and Arras to the junction of the Oise and the Aisne, and thence eastward along the Aisne, thru Soissons and Rheims, across the Champagne and the Argonne to the north of Verdun. From the region of Verdun it ran southeasterly to Belfort and into Alsace. It was nearly 400 miles in length.

Since one end rested on the seacoast and the other was against the Swiss frontier, flanking movements had become impossible, and the frontal attack was the only means of open warfare, so both sides intrenched and prepared for the greatest siege in history.

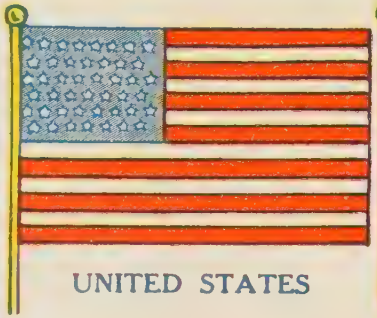
During the period of the race for the coast, however, there had been violent fighting along the Aisne, in the Argonne, around Verdun and along the Lorraine and Alsace borders. The French fortunes in Alsace had fluctuated. Mulhausen had been taken, lost and retaken and lost again. The Germans had crossed the Meuse at St. Mihiel and occupied the town. They held it as the point of a wedge driven into the Verdun-Toul fortified front.

Belgians camping in a church at Camptich. A church at Camptich converted into a camping place.



Belgians check Uhlans from behind barricaded street. Firing over barricades in Willebrook Station near Malines.

The Royal Family of England. From left to right are the Prince of Wales, Prince Henry, Prince Albert, King George, Princess Mary, and Queen Alexandria (sitting).



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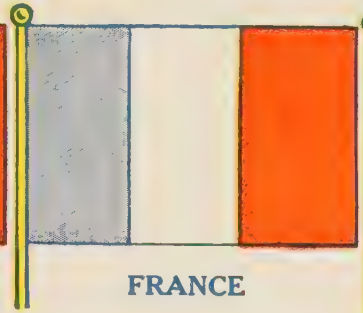
MEXICO



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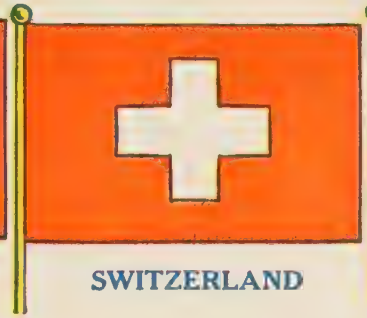
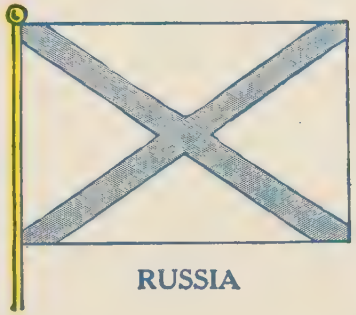


SWITZERLAND

BRAZIL

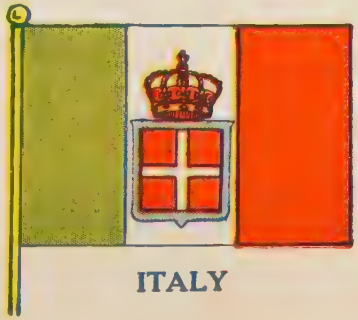
GREAT BRITAIN

GERMANY



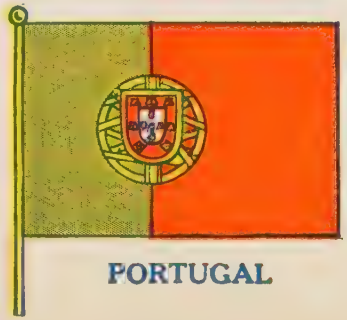
RUSSIA

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

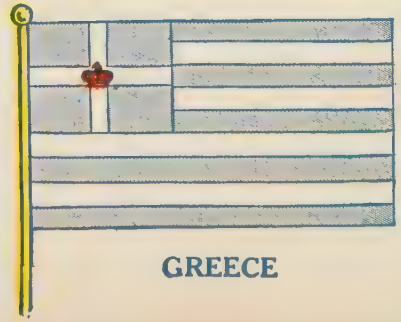


ITALY

SPAIN

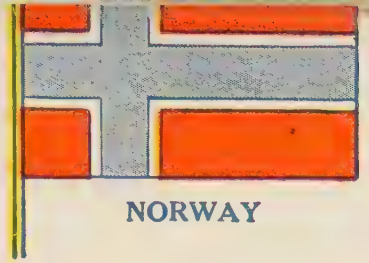


PORTUGAL



GREECE

ROUMANIA



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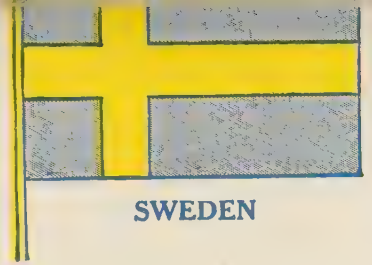
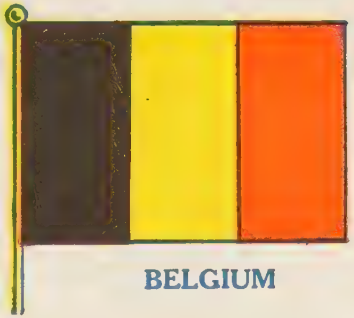


SWEDEN

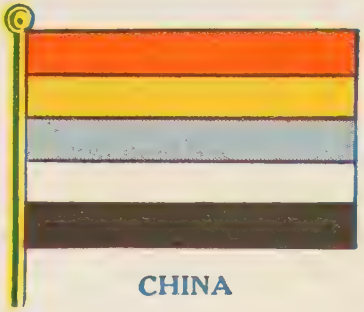
DENMARK

SERVIA

NETHERLANDS



BELGIUM



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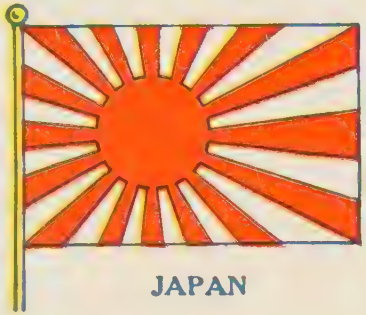

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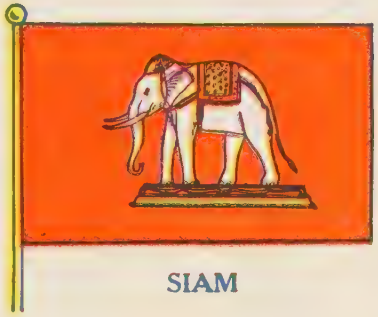
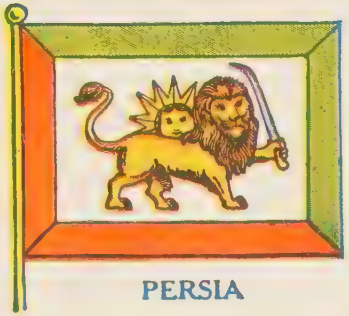


SIAM

TURKEY



PERSIA

FLAGS OF TWENTY-FIVE NATIONS

Von Tirpitz of the German Navy whose ruthless submarine warfare against women and children shocked the world.

To recount all the incidents of the trench siege that followed the winning of the coast would be an almost endless task. The outstanding features of it alone need be related. Of these the two first were the battle of the Yser and the battle of Ypres. The former was an attempt of the Germans to drive in the left wing of the allies where it stretched from Dixmude to the sea, and thus to make an opening thru which they could pour in a flanking movement. It began on Oct. 20 with an attack on Nieuport that temporarily succeeded. British gunboats, however, drove the Germans out of the city, and the attack was renewed near Dixmude. Here again defeat was met thru the cutting of dikes and flooding of the canal region. On Oct. 28 the Germans evacuated the south bank of the Yser, and the battle ended.

Three days later the battle of Ypres began. The British were defending this position with an army that had been reduced to about 100,000. Their front was some thirty miles in length. They were attacked by vastly greater numbers. The fighting lasted fifteen days, culminating in an assault on the British front by the famous Prussian guard, under the eyes of the kaiser. The assault failed. Ypres itself was destroyed, but the position was saved. These two battles of Flanders are said to have cost the Germans 150,000 men.

From Nov. 16 until April 21 there was no fresh drive for Calais on the Ypres front. But in the interval there was tremendous fighting in the Argonne, in Champagne, east of the Meuse, and in the Vosges. No great gains followed these terrific encounters, altho there were advances here and there by both sides. The most marked were the German advance at Soissons in the middle of January, the French gains in the Champagne in March and the French offensive against the St. Mihiel salient in April.

On April 22 the second battle of Ypres began with the German surprise attack in which gas was first used. It was in this battle that the Canadians saved the day after the French line had been driven in. After five days' fighting, the German attack was checked, the allies being compelled to yield ground and reform their lines on their new positions. Ypres, however, remained in possession of the British.

In the early summer there was a notable French offensive on the front north of Arras, in which the Germans had been slowly driven back toward their positions at Lille and Lens. This offensive ended leaving Souchez as a German salient projecting into the French front. Early in July there was a desperate effort of the crown prince to advance in the Argonne. His first onslaught carried several French positions, but was soon checked.

But after a year of trench siege the front showed little change, and the end seemed as far distant as ever.

Immense Ammunition Dumps Captured by Allies.

Lloyd George attends first review as War Secretary. Canadian Highlanders were inspected by Lloyd George, British Secretary of War, and General Sir Sam Hughes.

The Era of Gigantic Battles

CHAPTER V

NEW FIGHTING METHODS USED — TRENCHES — BARBED WIRE ENTANGLEMENTS — POISONED GAS — BATTLE OF VERDUN — BATTLE OF SOMME — ALLIED GAINS.

When the first eighteen months of the war had passed and the entrenched lines on the western front showed no significant change, the world began to wonder whether the allies and the central powers had not reached a state of deadlock from which neither could extract a decisive victory.

At first there had been much confident talk of breaking the enemy line. Germany was certain she could reach Paris, the channel ports or any other goal upon which her heart was set—until she tried. Her failures to go thru to Calais on the two occasions when she hurled vast forces against the allied front in Flanders must have discouraged her, even as it encouraged the allies.

Men who were on the Yser and at Ypres in the allied armies said afterward they could not understand why the enemy had not simply walked thru their lines to the sea. They were outnumbered, terribly outgunned, and the Germans had twenty shells to their one.

These enemy failures, and the failures of the British at Neuve Chapelle and the French in the Champagne, the St. Mihiel salient and the Artois, aroused doubts as to the possibility of smashing thru an army fortified in trench positions for great gains that might lead to victory.

Military writers began to talk about war by attrition—that is by the gradual wearing down of the enemy. There was much calculating concerning man-power, and estimates of natural resources. Statesmen and generals got a new vision of the war's significance; they saw that it was a war of nations, and not of armies merely—a war in which the civilian was to be as important as the soldier.

While some men turned their thought to plans for increasing the resources and stimulating the resourcefulness of their countries, in order that they might be fit to stand the test of a long struggle, other men gave themselves to thinking out methods by which the problems of the new warfare could be solved, and the defenses of the trenches overcome. The traditional tactics and traditional weapons were manifestly inadequate.

Already the achievements of the world's inventive genius for the last fifty years had been requisitioned and adapted to the service of the armies. The telephone and the wireless, the automobile, the aeroplane and the submarine—all of these things were playing undreamed of parts in the great conflict and creating conditions for which the history of the world had no parallel.

For these conditions, almost wholly unforeseen and certainly in no full sense appreciated by strategists and tacticians prior to the actual experience of the war, new plans of attacks and defense had to be worked out and new weapons invented.

One of the first marked tendencies was to strengthen the artillery. It soon became clear that attempts to take entrenched lines, protected by barbed wire

Admiral Wemyss, whose appointment as First Sea Lord was considered a wise step, for he was familiar with the navy from the ground up, and was classed as an "old sea-dog."

entanglements and the fire of innumerable machine guns, involved a certain and terrible expenditure of life, unless the charge of the infantry was preceded by a most thoro and destructive artillery bombardment.

The cutting of the enemy barbed wire with nippers proved an enterprise far too costly to be continued. The high explosive shell was substituted as a more efficient and less costly method.

It was in the experimental fighting of the first year and a half that the "barrage" was discovered. The barrage is a method of directing the combined and simultaneous fire of a number of batteries so as to create a barrier of shrapnel, high-explosive or other shells thru which the enemy dare not pass, or, should he venture, must suffer a terrible loss.

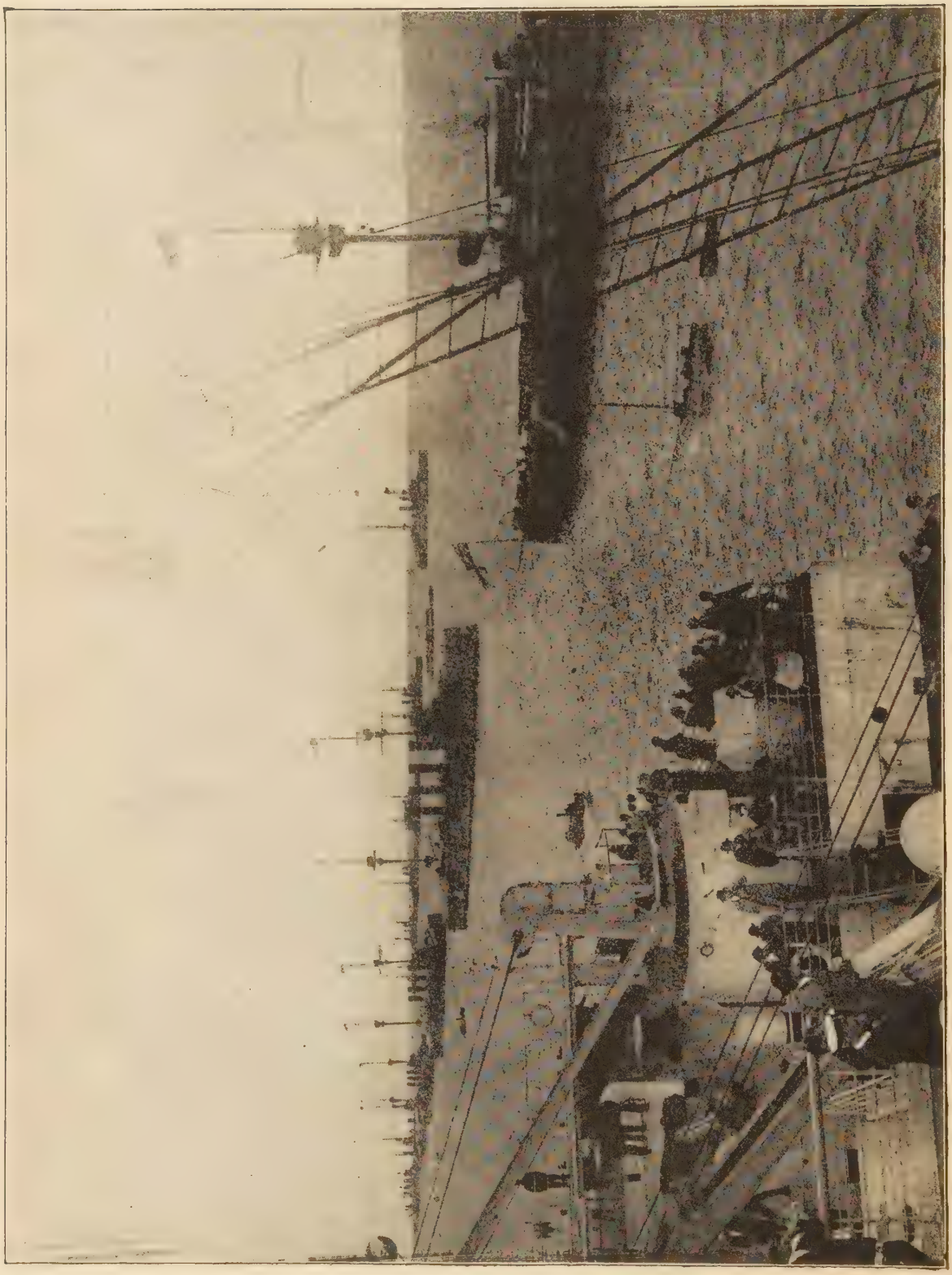
In process of time the barrage was developed so that there came to be a number of ways in which it was used for various purposes. There was the creeping barrage, that moved slowly forward like a curtain of fire in front of the advancing infantry, holding the enemy's first line trench until the attackers were within a few yards of it, and then lifting suddenly to fall on his support and reserve trenches. There was the rolling barrage, by which a certain area of the enemy's line was subjected to a systematic shelling that moved back and forth, as a lawn is rolled, until everything was flattened out. And there was the box barrage, laid down so as to form an almost impenetrable protection for a threatened position, or thrown about the enemy so as to prevent his movement laterally as well as frontally.

Another discovery of the experimental stage was the impossibility of an unlimited objective under the new conditions. It was no longer safe to say to a military unit "There is the enemy line. Go as far as you can." Operations were on too big a scale. Single units, that found

Earl Kitchener, Great Britain's former War Minister, better known as Kitchener of Khartoum, who was drowned on his way to Russia.

exceptional opportunities for advancing on their immediate sector, were in danger of getting far ahead of their supporting comrades on either side, losing contact with the main body, and so—in the very hour of victory—becoming cut off disastrously. This happened more than once.

Moreover the barrage, and the increasing use of artillery generally, made it of utmost importance that there should be the closest cooperation between the guns and the infantry. This could only be ensured by giving the infantry definite objectives, to be reached at a certain hour and beyond which it must not go without explicit orders, however promising the opportunities might be. Once the plan of the limited objective was adopted, to ignore it meant slaughter for those who took chances—meant that the venturesome unit was certain to come under the devastating barrage of its own guns.



The British Fleet in the English Channel off Portsmouth.

Hence the fighting of battles became a matter of great precision as to the division of labor, the assignment of objectives, the scheduling of attack and arrival. Battles were frequently planned months in advance and rehearsed behind the lines on fields where the enemy positions and trenches were reproduced as nearly as possible.

Ultimately a battle became an intricate affair in which the functions of heavy and field artillery, mine throwers, trench mortars and machine guns had all to be carefully weighed and related to the particular task to be done. In the same way the use of gas, of hand grenades and rifle fire had to be skilfully calculated and the proportion and manner of each determined. Aeroplanes and tanks added two further factors of ever increasing importance.

The year 1916 brought two great battles on the western front that exceeded anything the world had conceived to be possible—the battle of Verdun and the battle of the Somme. The former lasted from February 21 until July 1, and the latter from July 1 until March of the following year. Each battle—so called—was a series of bitterly fought engagements, any one of which alone would have been considered a notable event in previous wars.

The battle of Verdun was the first German attempt to put into effective use the lessons learned in the year and a half of entrenched warfare.

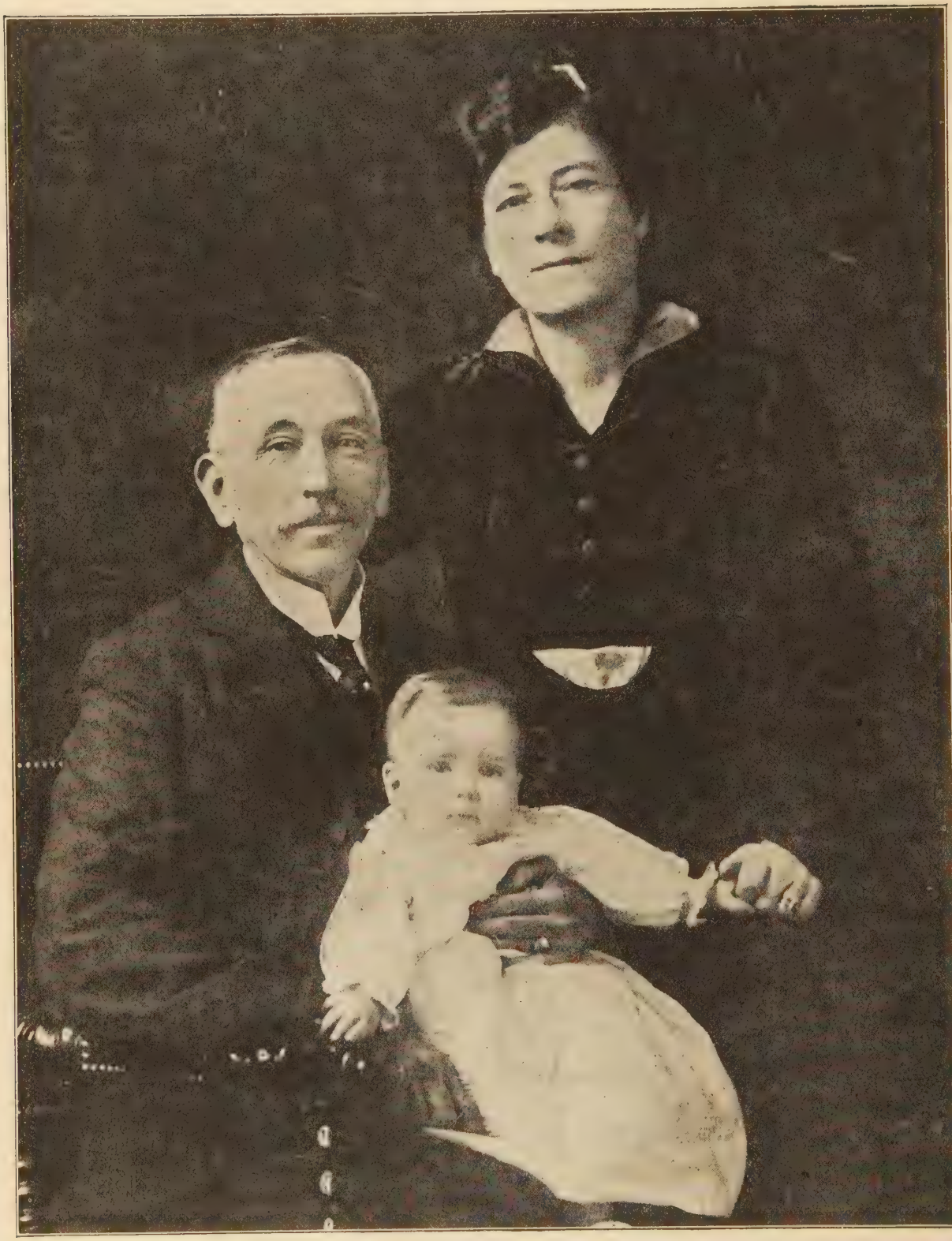
Two striking features characterized the beginning of this battle—First, its surprise nature; second, the amazing preliminary bombardment. The French knew that something unusual was in progress in and behind the lines north of Verdun, and they were on their guard against attack; but they did not know how strong was the force concentrated by the enemy under cover of the hills and woods. Not less than 500,000 men were assembled by the Germans for this mighty

General Byng, Hero of Cambrai in Famous Tank Charge.

effort, which, they hoped, would lead to the occupation of the great and famous fortress of France, and, possibly to the reduction of the whole Meuse line of defense, and the opening of the Marne valley route to Paris.

Never before had there been seen such a massing of artillery. It had never entered the mind of a military commander that so vast a number of guns could be used on a comparatively limited front. The war correspondent of the Niewe Rotterdamsche Courant, thus described what he saw when he visited the German lines at Verdun:—

"Over the roads leading towards Verdun artillery and ammunition were brought up in such quantities as the history of war has never seen on such a limited area. The country seemed to be covered with an incredible number of guns. We could hardly believe what we saw around Verdun. Long rows of guns, as



Australian Premier and Family: An attempt was made to assassinate William M. Hughes, the Australian Premier, at his home in New Victoria, Australia.

in old battle pictures, set up in open fields with gunners standing about them, and on the hill-tops observation posts with their great telescopes uncovered. When I shut my eyes I still see before me the curved lines, row upon row of guns, endless array, with gunners moving about them in the open battlefield."

To tell in detail the story of Verdun would require a volume of several hundred pages. It was from its first hour a demonstration of German strength and French resistance. Never was the spirit of France more gloriously displayed than in this long and terrible conflict. Two thrilling watchwords rang around the world from the battlefields of the Meuse hills and valleys—"They shall not pass!" and "We shall get them!"

Following the intense and protracted bombardment with which the Germans

Herbert Asquith, famous British Statesman.

Charge of Heroic Scotch Highlanders. The hardiest of the British troops are those Highlanders composed of the brawny sons of Scotland.

opened the Verdun campaign, came a charge of their infantry on a front of twenty miles. The first day they gained ground to a depth of two miles, acquiring positions of advantage from which to continue the attack.

On the last day of February the Germans entered Fort Douaumont, northeast of Verdun, and one of the most important of the outer ring of fortresses. It had been reduced to a ruin before the enemy occupied it. During March they captured Forges, on the west bank of the Meuse, and occupied Vaux, southwest of Douaumont. The long struggle for Dead Man's hill began, the bloodiest struggle and the ghastliest battlefield on the whole Verdun front.

Thruout April and May the fighting continued incessantly. Many a terrific attack was repulsed by the French, but, inch by inch, they gave ground on both sides of the Meuse, drawing ever a narrower circle around Verdun. In June the Germans drove up the valley and the hillside leading to Fort Vaux, and, in a bitter fight, captured it. Douaumont and Vaux were now both in the enemy's hands; a few days later Thiaumont fell, almost due north of Verdun, and on June 24 the Germans entered Fleury, penetrating the inner circle of Verdun's defenses. It was a critical hour for France. For a week the fate of Verdun hung in the balance.

A German Zeppelin flight over British fleet, which the fleet destroyed with three well placed shots.

Then on July 1—almost without warning—the British and French smashed hard against the German lines on a front of ten miles, north and south of the Somme river.

The second great battle of the war was beginning—a battle worthy to stand side by side with Verdun.

The success of the allied attack on the Somme, altho not measuring up in its early stages to the hopes of the British and French commanders, was enough to alarm the Germans and to relieve the pressure on Verdun. The Meuse city was never again in peril. Germany, first and last, spent 500,000 men in a futile effort. France came out of the great test of strength and spirit her confidence fortified, and forever certain of the world's admiration.

The battle of the Somme was, for the allies, what Verdun had been for the Germans —an attempt to put into effective practise the lessons of warfare learned during the first year and a half or two years of war. The massing of artillery, the employment of the barrage, the use of the limited objective, and the development of the tactical nibble into the big, strategic bite, were all phases of this battle.

When it began the British and French believed they could smash thru and break the enemy line—and the theory was generally held that if the line could be broken on a considerable front a decisive victory might be gained by pressing the advantage with unfaltering vigor.

On this theory and with this hope heavy sacrifices were made in the storming of enemy positions. The enemy was made to suffer heavy losses, and his tenacious defense indicated that he regarded seriously the possible consequences of the Franco-British drive.

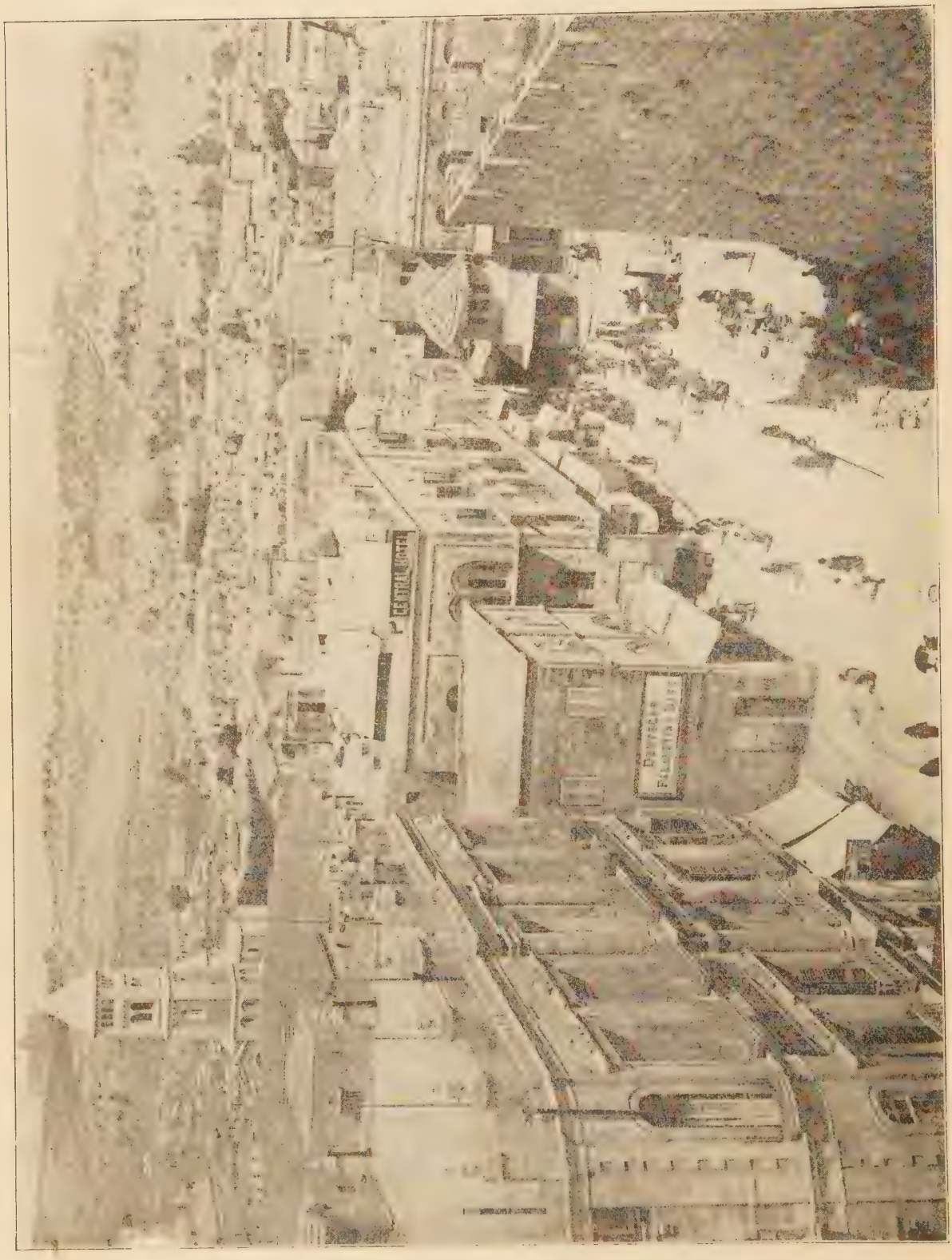
But the Somme battle had been begun too late in the summer. No time margin had been left for the possible failure of the original schedule, and when the British were held up for weeks at Thiepval and north of the Ancre, the schedule was thrown out of gear.

Before the full value of the Somme successes could be realized by pressing

Gen. Vassitch Commanded Serbia Second Army.

the victory home, the open season for fighting ended and the rainy season set in. The Somme became an almost impassable mire. Infantry movements were exceedingly difficult, and the transport of big guns impracticable. Operations had to be abandoned, and the enemy, who was getting exceedingly uneasy about the security of his lines, obtained a respite that allowed him to revise his plans and prepare for a new program in the spring.

When the drive halted in November 1916 the British had conquered the ridge overlooking Bapaume, and the French had pushed forward to the outskirts of Peronne. It was estimated the Germans had lost 700,000 men, of whom 95,000 had been taken prisoner. The allies counted among their gains 135 heavy guns, 180 field pieces and 1,438 machine guns. From this standpoint the Somme battle had been the most successful battle.



The British forces despite continued opposition from the Turko-German forces entered the Holy City.

Hindenburg Retreats

CHAPTER VI

LLOYD GEORGE FORMS NEW BRITISH CABINET — GERMAN PEACE PROPOSALS — GERMAN ATROCITIES — GERMANS RETREAT — FAMOUS HINDENBURG RETREAT — UNRESTRICTED U-BOAT WARFARE — GEN. BYNG'S TANK DRIVE AT CAMBRAI — BRITISH ARTILLERY OVERWHELMING — CANADA AND OTHER BRITISH COLONIES TAKE PART.

Had the British and French resumed their drive on the Somme front when favorable weather made further operations possible in the spring of 1917 great and important results might have been realized.

They had driven a wedge into the enemy lines, twenty miles in width and nine miles in depth. They had made the deepest impression on an entrenched front that had been made anywhere or by either side since the war began.

If the wedge had been pushed only a few miles further east it would have cut lines of petrol and steam communication absolutely vital to the security of the German line. North of it and south of it were German salients, occupied by many thousands of troops whose positions were menaced by the wedge, and would have been seriously endangered by its further progress.

Germany had suffered so heavily to no purpose in the battle of Verdun, and had been forced to pay so high a price for the defense of her Picardy positions on the Somme, that she was not in a position to launch a big offensive.

Indeed, during the winter of 1916, she made an attempt to promote negotiations for peace. She had just finished the conquest of the greater part of Roumania, and she considered the moment opportune to suggest that a settlement might be reached.

Just before her proposals were made there had been a change in the British government. Mr. Asquith, the Liberal party premier, resigned, and David Lloyd George accepted the responsibility of forming a cabinet. He invited representatives of all political parties to join him, and succeeded in creating a coalition or union government in which many of Britain's ablest men accepted office.

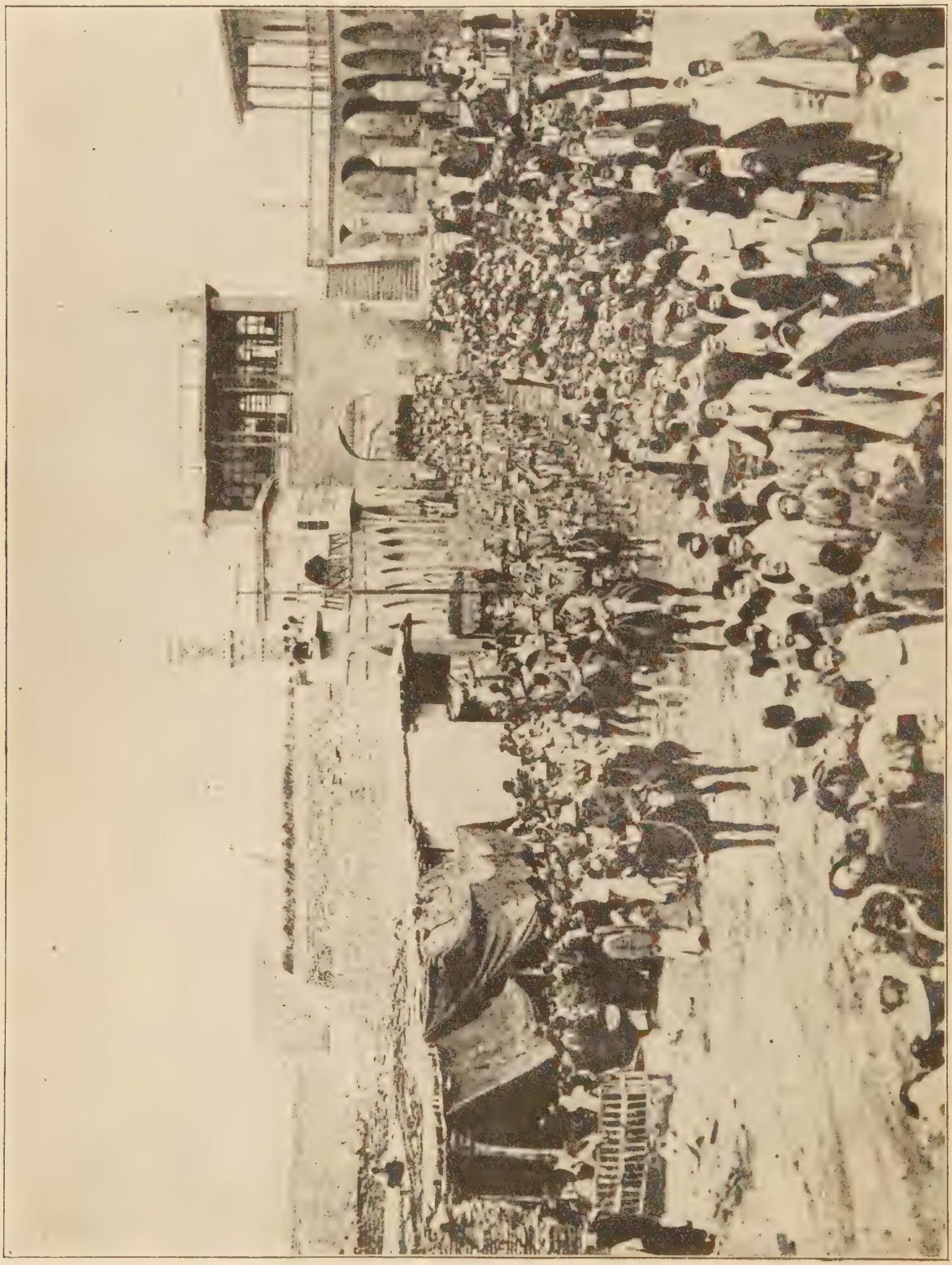
The answer of this government to the enemy peace proposals was to authorize the enlistment of 1,000,000 more men, and to ask parliament for a war credit of $2,000,000,000. Thru Premier Briand France warned the world to beware of Germany seeking peace, and General Nivelle celebrated his appointment to succeed General Joffre, now made a Marshal of France, by taking 11,000 prisoners and advancing two miles on a seven mile front north of Verdun.

Germany continued her efforts, but the allied governments gave the world to understand that they were in no humor to consider the enemy's proposals, and had no faith in the enemy's word. Premier Lloyd George declared that allied peace terms were, "Reparation, Restoration and Security."

Germany had no intention whatever of making peace on terms involving reparation and restoration.

So, finding it useless to pursue her peace efforts further, Germany turned her attention to obtaining a more secure position on the western front.

During the winter months an elaborate trench system, fortified as no trench system had ever been fortified before, was constructed along a front extending—roughly—from the region of Douai to the Aisne, with Cambrai and St. Quentin marking its main positions.



Historic City of Bagdad. The photograph shows the British troops in possession of the ancient city marching along the principal street.

Belgian civilians, deported from Belgium, and allied prisoners were employed in the construction of this trench system that became famous thruout the world as the Hindenburg line.

Early in 1917 the British began to feel out the enemy lines north of the Ancre brook on the Somme front. They found an encouraging situation and pushed forward. Presently they were regaining village after village, capturing strategic heights, and advancing with unexpected rapidity. It became evident that the enemy was retreating according to plan, and engaging only in such rear guard action as was necessary to protect his retirement. He was withdrawing his imperilled salients from their positions north and south of the allies' Somme wedge.

Admiral Sir David Beatty, of the British Navy.

The British took Bapaume and the

After the fight with the Huns near Rheims. The Black Watch, which contains some of the best fighters in the British Army.

British and Canadian Troops in the Most Sang

ttle Against the Germans in Ypres Sector.

ridge extending south from it toward Peronne. Then things moved rapidly. The Germans fell back on a front of 60 miles, burning, blasting and pillaging as they went. In all history there is no precedent for the work of wanton destruction the retreating armies wrought. Evacuated cities were mined and reduced to utter ruins by internal explosions timed to take effect after the German troops were well away; in some villages buildings were wrecked by fastening cables to their corners, and then attaching the cables to steam tractors, that literally pulled the buildings to pieces.

Orchards were chopped down, or valuable trees scarred so as to ensure their death. Vines were cut at the roots.

The civilian population of many a small town was driven out and carried along with the armies for service behind

Horses, too, wore gas masks. Both men and horses wore gas masks at the front.

Scottish fighters in a bayonet charge. 2nd Battalion "London Scottish" is an interesting study.

the German lines.

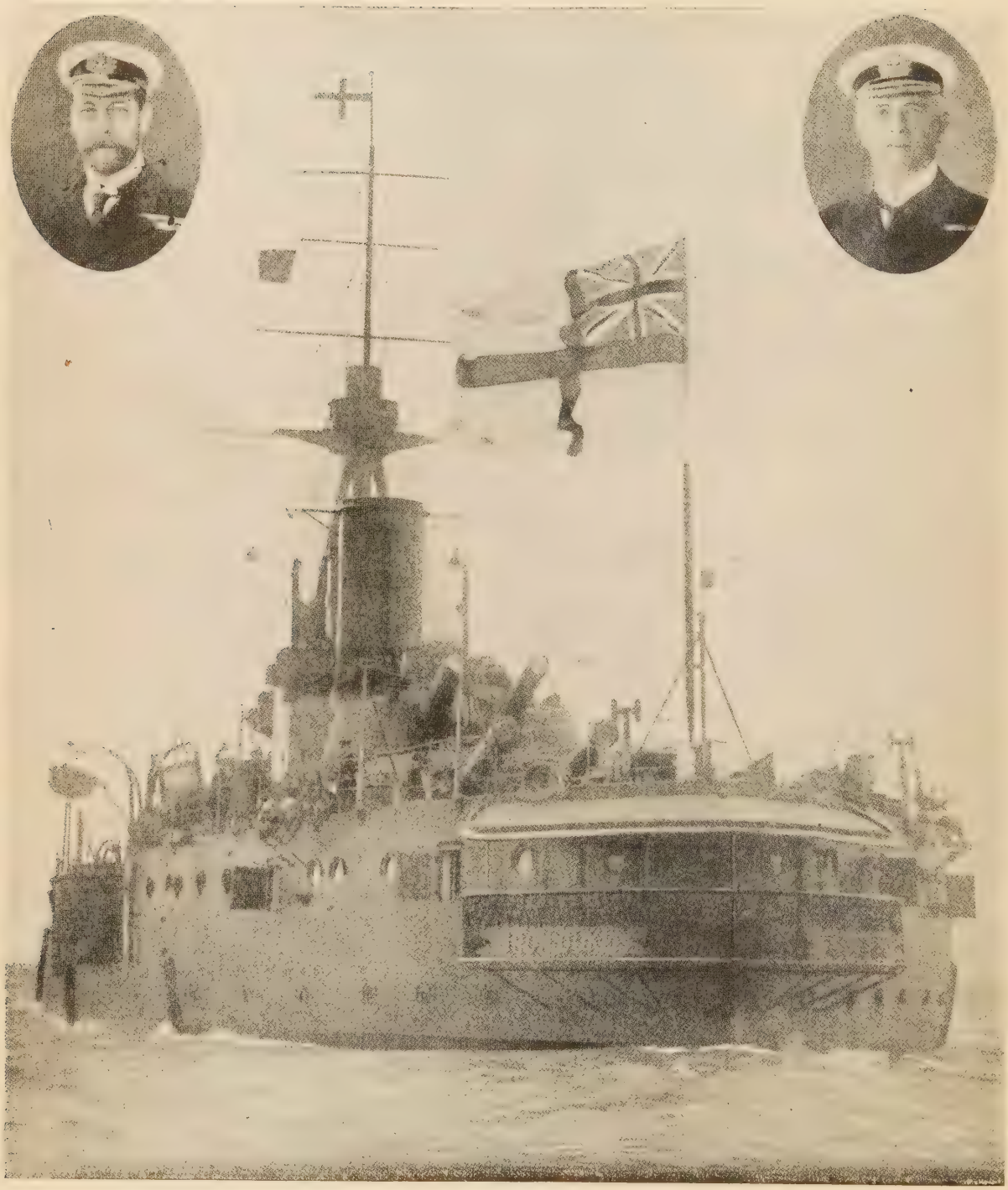
The retreating armies reached the new Hindenburg positions late in March, and there established themselves none too soon for their own safety. The allies were close upon their heels.

It had been the belief of Von Hindenburg that by making the great retirement he would destroy the program of the allies for a spring offensive. He supposed that they had concentrated vast numbers of guns, and assembled immense quantities of munitions on the Somme front, and that they would not be able to bring these supplies up to his new line in time to launch a serious drive before certain other events occurred upon which he was counting.

One of these events was the success of unrestricted U-boat warfare, proclaimed by Germany on January 31, 1917; the other was Russian surrender or revolu-

Lt.-Col. William A, Bishop, V. C., D. S. O., M. C., of the British Royal Flying Corps, greatest living war aviator

The British Cavalry. They are seen charging over the top of a ridge galloping at full speed.



The British Battleship "Iron Duke," Flagship of the Home Fleet, Has Been Present at All Battles Between the British and German Armadas.

tion, for either of which Germany had been working by every secret and corrupt means at her command.

It happened, however, that General Haig and General Nivelle, the British and French commanders, were not quite so simple as the German general supposed them to be.

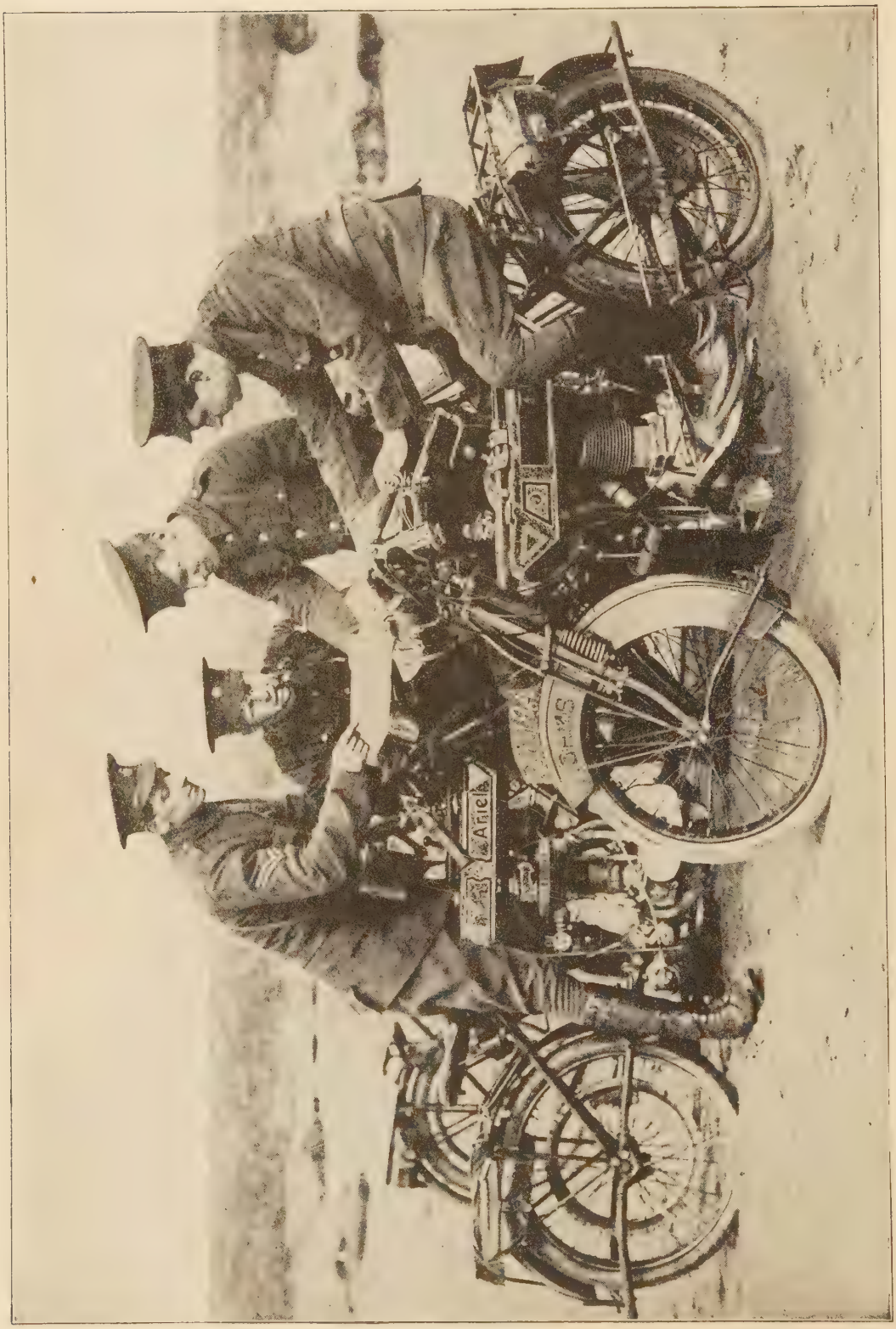
General Haig, for example, instead of attempting to move all his big guns and stores of munitions across the Hindenburg wilderness, simply ran them up the line a few miles to the region behind Arras and Vimy ridge. In like manner General Nivelle made his concentrations in the Aisne region. From neither of these fronts had the enemy retired.

The quick pursuit, and the vigor with which the British and French attacked St. Quentin, threw the enemy off his guard. Hence when on Easter Monday, April 9, the British stormed Vimy Ridge, taking 6,000 prisoners and advancing over the ridge and several miles to the east of it, the enemy was manifestly surprised. The British attack and subsequent progress threatened the security of the Hindenburg line at its northern end, and there was a frantic effort of the enemy to construct new and stronger positions covering Douai and protecting Cambrai before Haig's men could menace these important points.

In the meantime the French under General Nivelle carried out an ambitious attack along the Aisne front, with the Craonne plateau and the Chemin des Dames as their primary objective, and the St. Gobain plateau and city of Laon as their ultimate and chief objectives.

They gained their primary objectives in part, at least; but the price paid was so heavy that the political leaders of France were panic stricken, and—so the story goes—ordered the attack abandoned at a time when a great success impended.

Evidence of the good shooting of the Canadian Artillery. A direct shot from a Canadian artillery piece put this German gun out of commission.



Motorcycle Troops on Scout Duty.

General Nivelle soon thereafter lost his command, and was succeeded by General Petain, a man of strict military mind and spirit, who had no ears for the politicians, and was inclined to move carefully, rather than spectacularly. For the rest of the year there was little offensive action on the part of the French. They fought a hard and successful duel with the forces of the German Crown Prince for possession of the Chemin des Dames, and late in the year, by a clever bit of tactical work on the part of Petain, they ousted the enemy from road and plateau, and won positions commanding the approaches to Laon.

The British, having exploited their success on Vimy Ridge as far as seemed possible, opened a new campaign in Belgium, resulting in the capture of all the ridge positions from Messines to Passchendaele.

On the Cambrai front General Byng made a dramatic attack that came as a complete surprise to the enemy.

Tanks had been first employed by the British on the Somme. They had proved wonderfully effective in smashing down barbed wire, field fortifications and trench parapets; they had done great work in cleaning out machine gun nests.

British troops in France captured 657 German guns, including over 150 heavy guns. Machine guns to the number of 5,750 have been counted as have over a thousand trench mortars.

But on the Somme tanks had been comparatively few in number. An effort had been made to use them in Flanders, but the ground was so muddy, so horribly churned by shell fire, that the tank was at a disadvantage.

But General Byng swept the enemy temporarily off his feet by a tank attack on an extraordinary scale. Hundreds of

Heavy Artillery Used by the Allies on Western Front.

Australian troops on parade just before leaving for the front.

the monsters rolled suddenly down on the German trenches behind a screen of smoke from the British guns, their rumble drowned to the hearing of the enemy by the roar of the cannon. They smashed a wide path thru the enemy lines, opening the way for the infantry. The success was too big—it was bigger than the British expected, bigger than they were prepared to support.

The infantry advanced within three miles of Cambrai, occupying Bourlon wood on the crest of Bourlon hill. But the enemy counter attack caught the British insufficiently supported in their new positions, and they were forced to abandon about two-thirds of the ground they had gained.

The failure of General Byng to hold his advance was a great disappointment to the allies. However there were greater results from the venture than appeared on the map.

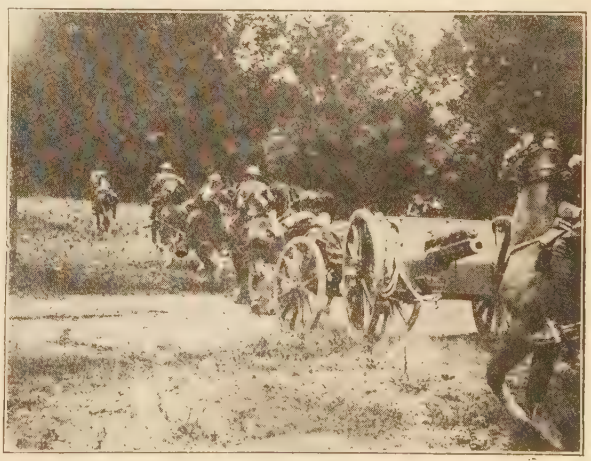
It had demonstrated the value of tanks, and it had proved that the enemy line could be broken—a possibility long doubted by many.

The battles of 1916 and 1917 were amazing demonstrations of destructive power.

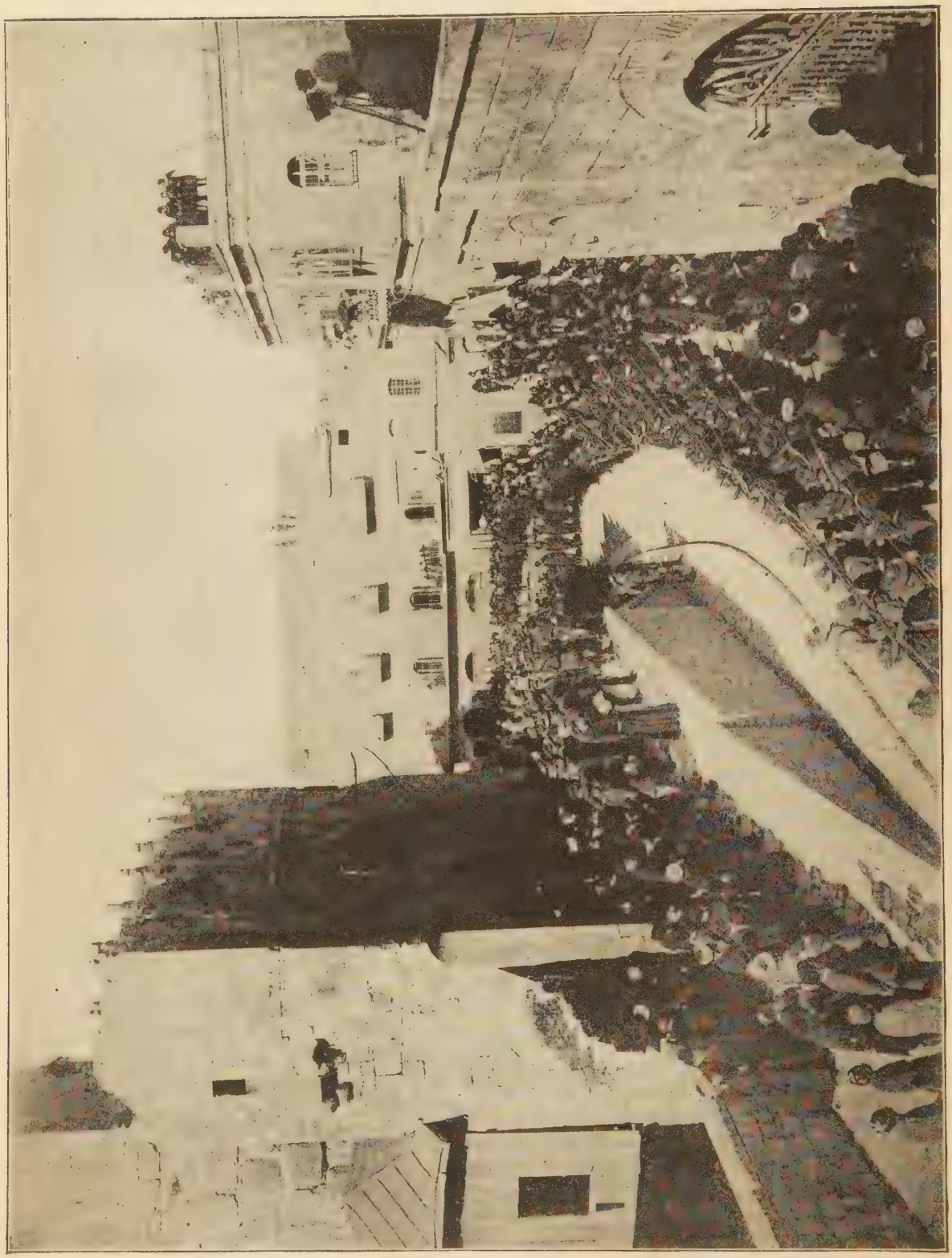
The Somme bombardments were the most intense known in the history of warfare up to that time.

In eighty days of fighting the French and British troops used on a front of less than 25 miles 15,000,000 artillery shells, or an average of between 150,000 and 200,000 a day—not less than 6,000 an hour for every hour of the twenty-four. And this is exclusive of trench mortar shells and other projectiles, such as hand grenades.

Many of these shells weighed over a ton; many more over half a ton. It is safe to estimate that 5,000,000 tons of metal were hurled against the German defenses in little more than ten weeks time.



Royal Horse Artillery going into action at the gallop. This remarkable British official photograph taken on the British Western front in France shows the Royal Horse Artillery approaching a battery position at a gallop. The R. H. A. are the most mobile branch of the artillery.



The taking of Jerusalem and the entry of the British forces, was probably the most historic event of the old world.

This, of course, was only part of the blasting work. Unestimated quantities of high explosives were used in mining operations, and vast craters were created in which enemy soldiers and guns were entombed.

It was thus that Thiepval, the Regina redoubt and other powerful German works were reduced to ruins, and their garrisons driven from the chaotic heaps of earth and masonry and molten metal.

quantity used in the same time on the Somme. Instead of 6,000 an hour they discharged over 12,000. As a consequence the British captured four times as big an area as they had in a like period of the Somme offensive.

Along the Aisne the French exceeded the British record in quantity of shells used. The strong defenses of the Germans, in the caves and tunnels of the chalk and limestone cliffs, required a tre-

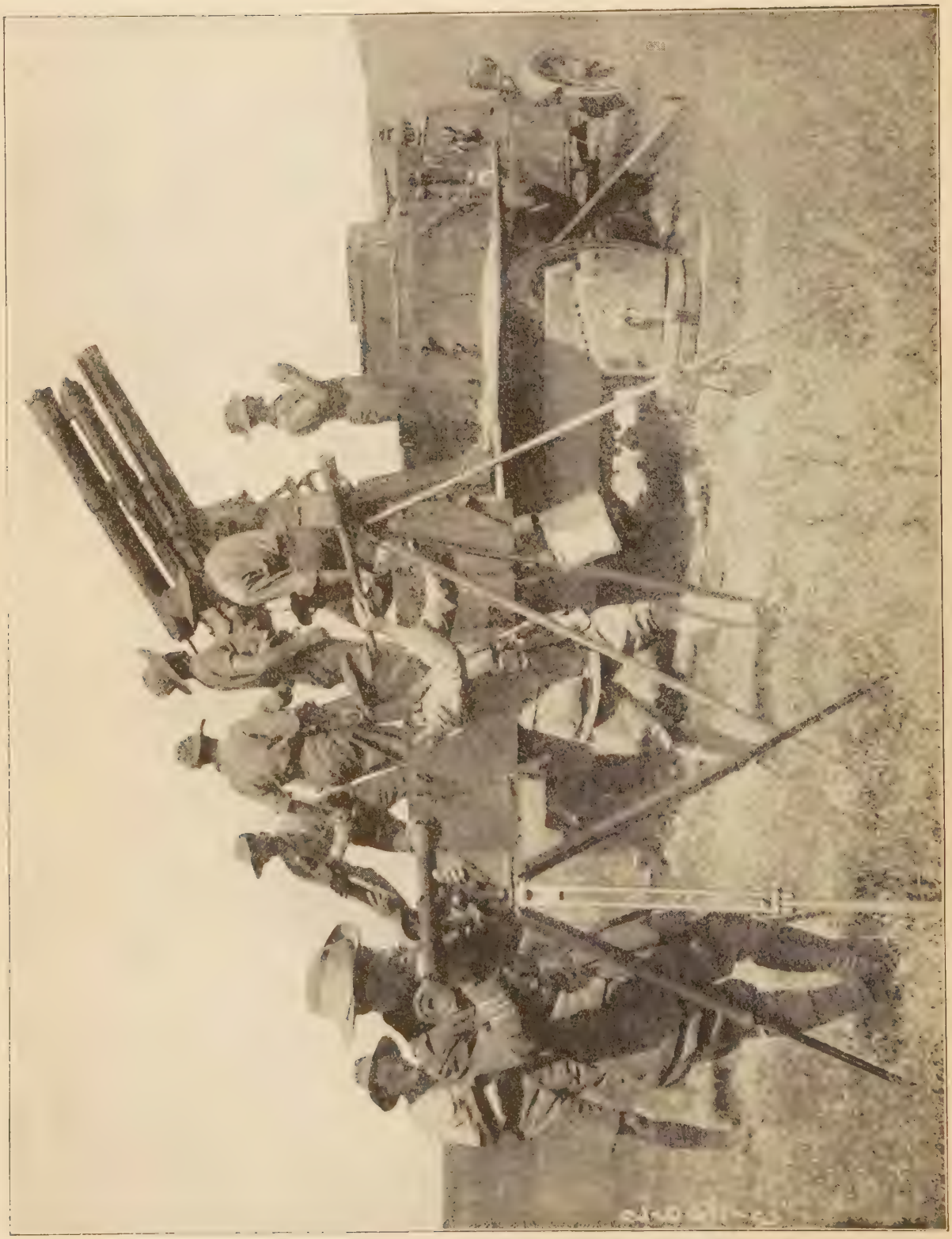
Sir Robert Borden, Premier of Canada, making rousing speech to Canadian fighters at front.

But if the Somme drive outrivalled all previous records, it became a comparatively moderate affair in the light of what took place on the Arras front and along the Aisne in 1917.

It is estimated that the British in the first ten days of their fighting on the Arras front deluged the enemy with 4,000,000 shells, or more than double the

mendous pounding. The French literally shattered the solid rock, and forced the enemy to flee from his quarried shelters as men will flee in the day of God's judgment.

The part played by the over-seas Dominions of Great Britain in the world war is one that will long be remembered to the glory of the British race and the



Anti-Aircraft Gun Used by the Allies Against the Germans.

praise of those free institutions that were cradled in England.

From Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa there was an immediate response. Men of the colonies rallied to the call of the empire. It should be borne in mind that the people of these self-governing dependencies were under no constraint of constitution, law or force to send their sons to Europe, or in any other way

frontier because of the century of friendly relations that she had enjoyed with her great American neighbor. She had no army—only a few militia battalions.

But when the news came that Belgium had been invaded and that Great Britain was at war with Germany, there flashed across the Atlantic the message "England can count on Canada."

In seven weeks Canada had created a

British Tommies returning from the trenches on the Flanders front after several days of fighting.

to share in the sacrifices of the great conflict. They were as free to choose as was the United States, and they chose at once to stand with the mother country, with France and with Belgium for the cause of liberty against the central autocracies.

The story of Canada's response is characteristic of that of the others. Canada was essentially a non-military country, happy in the security of her own long

magnificent camp at Valcartier, near the ancient city of Quebec, and was gathering the nucleus of as fine and as fit a little army as fought on any front in the four years of war.

The government's first call was for 20,000 men. It got 40,000, and the first contingent sailed from the Gaspe Basin on October 3, two months after the war began, numbering 33,000 picked men.

Collision of this vessel, the S. S. Imo, with the S. S. Mont Blanc caused the Great Halifax disaster.

Indescribable horrors and ruin caused by great Halifax explosion. This most remarkable photo tells the story of suffering and misery caused by the great Halifax explosion with graphic realism.

A period of training was necessary in England, but four months from the day of departure a Canadian division landed in France and was sent to the Flanders front.

From that hour to the end of the war Canada always had a place in the line. To her credit stands one brilliant victory after another and many a stout defense.

Langemarck and St. Julien are names on the Canadian honor roll. It was there that the sons of the Maple Leaf saved the day when the enemy, in April 1915, broke thru the line of the French colonial troops by the use of gas. Canada closed the gap, and, at terrific price held the enemy at bay for over 72 hours until reenforcements could arrive.

In the battle of the Somme the names of Courcelette and the Regina redoubt are remembered among the names of places that are forever identified with Canadian courage.

The taking of Vimy Ridge will be one of the great and often told stories in the history of the Dominion.

It was the Canadians, who, after other troops had tried for weeks to capture Passchendaele, northeast of Ypres, did the job and came back from victory a mere tattered and wounded remnant.

Canada, by voluntary enlistment and conscription, raised an army of about 500,000 men. Her population is barely more than 8,000,000. An army of like proportion in the United States would number over 10,000,000.

Australia did even better in proportion to population, and Australian troops were abreast of the Canadians in the bravery and daring of their efforts for freedom. In the early stages of the war they were mainly engaged in defending Egypt from Turk attack and holding tribesmen of the desert in check.

Their campaigns on the Gallipoli peninsula, in which the New Zealanders

Armenians defeated Turks in the siege of Van. The Turks were compelled to withdraw after a heavy loss inflicted by the Armenians.

were their comrades, brought them undying renown. The world remembers them as the men who fought naked to the waist, in cotton knee breeches and bare legs, and fought with the fury of demons, and the courage of young gods.

On many a western front sector the Australians did magnificent service. The demoralized retreat of the enemy from the Amiens front in the late summer of 1918 is ascribed to the work of these sinewy giants from the antipodes. It is said that their habit of raiding the enemy trenches in broad daylight, often while the German soldiers were eating their noon-day meal, completely unnerved the foe, and made him yield easily when the main counter attack was launched.

South African troops participated in the west front fighting, but the great work of South Africa was done in conquering the German colonies in Africa.

No less loyal than the self-governing colonies was India—still the domain of alien rule. Her turbaned sons took Bagdad and helped to take Jerusalem; they redeemed Mesopotamia and Syria; they were represented on every front, and everywhere with honor to themselves.

"The most daring adventure in naval history": The attack on Zeebrugge. In this picture is visualized the sc
history." In the foreground is the Vindictive, which had been fitted with prows to land men on the great half-m
to block the channel, are seen in the distance. The Thetis came first, steaming into a tornado of shell-fire from
in the mud and blown up. The Iphigenia was also beached, according to plan, on the eastern side, her engines be
the defenders and the flash of the British and German guns made the dark and artificially fog-laden scene spec

ttack on the Mole on April 22, which Admiral Sir Cyprian Bridge describes as the "most daring adventure in naval the Mersey ferry boats Iris and Daffodil being shown at each end of her. The three cement-laden cruisers, designed n batteries ashore. The Intrepid, smoking like a volcano, and with all her guns blazing, followed, and was sunk oing to hold her in position till she became bedded well down at the bottom. The searchlights and star shells of ehold.

Man or Beast? Masked Dispatch Riders Pick a Safe Road. English Advance Scouts Consulting Road Plans. Masked Dispatch Riders on the Salonica Front Well Guarded from the Fumes of Bulgar Gas Shells, Examining a Map in Order to Pick Out a Safe Road Back to Headquarters.

Russia's Tragic Story

CHAPTER VII

RUSSIA AT FIRST SUCCESSFUL — HINDENBURG STAYS THE RUSSIAN ARMIES — RUSSIA RETREATS — VON MACKENSEN VICTORIOUS — RUSSIAN OFFICIALS' TREACHERY — RUSSIAN REVOLUTION TAKES PLACE — KERENSKY BECOMES LEADER — KERENSKY DEPOSED — TROTZKY AND LENINE IN POWER — RUSSIA MAKES SEPARATE PEACE.

Russia came into the war as an autocracy. She left by the wide gateways of anarchy, along a road lurid with flame and crimson with blood.

Imperial Russia was actuated by the desire to prevent the extension of Imperial Prussia's sway to the Balkans, Constantinople and the regions that lie beyond.

Always the eyes of Russia had been on Constantinople. She was a mighty empire whose coasts in Europe were washed by the waters of land-locked seas, or, in the north, were barred by the Arctic ice for long months in every year. For her developing life she needed better access to the rest of the world. It seemed intolerable to her that the Dardanelles should be controlled by Turkey, apt at any moment to become the tool of some unfriendly or rival power, and thus the warden who would lock the only door thru which her mighty neighbor could emerge from the Black Sea.

On the Black Sea was the great Russian port of Odessa, the port where the vast harvests of southern and southwestern Russia—the incomparably rich black soil country—were gathered for shipment thruout the world. Thus the freedom of the Dardanelles was vital to the life of Russia. Desire to get Constantinople, or at least to keep it from German control, was more than a mere desire for empire. It was prompted by the fundamental principle of self-preservation.

There were some differences of opinion in the military councils of Russia when the war began as to whether the armies should advance across Poland and attack Germany, or whether the Vistula should be held as a line of defense, while the attack was made on East Prussia and Galicia, to the north and to the south of Poland.

This latter idea prevailed. It was decided to hold the Warsaw-Ivangorod fortified line of the Vistula, while an advance was made across the Baltic provinces, against East Prussia, and thru Bessarabia into Galicia.

Before the Germans had completed their drive thru Belgium the Russians were over the East Prussian frontier. As they advanced against an insufficient defending force the people of the invaded region sent up a loud cry for help, that reached the ears of the conquering armies sweeping toward Paris. It became necessary to send back to the eastern front troops that had been intended to cooperate in the humiliation of France. The Russian giant had moved with swifter strides than the German general staff had believed to be possible, and when it required re-enforcements to stay the threatening disaster on the Marne, they were already far distant, hurrying to check the Slav armies in a remote corner of the empire.

The service of the Russians in the critical hour that held victory or defeat for the western allies should not be forgotten.

They paid a heavy price for their prompt and courageous flank attack on the foe.

On September 1, General Von Hindenburg met them in East Prussia with powerful re-enforcements. It was his first dramatic appearance in the role of deliverer for the German people.

The battle took place at Tannenberg. The Russians were routed, with a loss of 80,000 in killed, wounded and prisoners, and were compelled to make a hasty retreat to their fortified line on the River Niemen.

The Hindenburg victory was hailed with great acclaim in Berlin. It was disappointing news for the allies, but the disappointment was quickly turned to rejoicing by the success on the Marne—a success to which the Slav reverse had contributed materially.

Better fortune attended the Russian invasion of Galicia, where the Austrian armies were early placed upon the defensive. On the day of the defeat at Tannenberg, in East Prussia, the Russians won a great victory over the Austrians at Lemberg. Thousands of the enemy were taken prisoner.

The Austrian demoralization was so great that Berlin became alarmed. At the western end of Galicia stood the city of Cracow, once capital of Poland. It was the gateway into Germany. If the Russians reached Cracow the immensely valuable industrial and mining region of Silesian Germany would be exposed to invasion.

Cleaning Up Sackville Street, Dublin, After Rebellion. It Had Been Shelled by Field Artillery.

Vienna was urged to strengthen its armies and exert a supreme effort to check the Slav advance. But the Russians could not be held at Lemberg, nor yet at the San river, seventy miles further west, where the Austrians made a desperate stand against them.

On September 7, as the German army

was falling back to the Aisne in France, the Russians routed the Austrians again at Ravaruska. A little more than a week later they invested the great Galician fortress of Przemysl. Leaving besieged by their troops they pressed forward and occupied Jaroslav on September 23.

With these important strategic points either controlled or held, they advanced to the Donajec river, that crosses Galicia from north to south, and, by the end of the month, had pushed their vanguards

Thus, two months after the beginning of the war, the Russians had conquered Galicia, and were menacing Germany and Hungary.

Early in October the Austrians began a series of counter attacks. German troops had been sent to their aid, and with the better trained soldiers of their great ally they were able to make appreciable progress.

The Russians were driven from the Uzsok pass in the Carpathians and com-

For this "military purpose" the Germans dropped bombs on England. The end of a perfect air raid by the German air men on England. The baby victims and women are being buried.

to within cannon range of Cracow.

Here they were content to rest for the time, while they spread out along the Carpathians, that separate Galicia from Hungary, in an attempt to get possession of the chief mountain passes debouching on the Hungarian plains. Here and there they actually penetrated the barrier range and reached the plains, occasioning consternation in Buda Pest, capital of Hungary.

pelled to abandon Przemysl. The capture of Jaroslav followed and the Russian armies fell back in eastern Galicia beyond the San.

A great battle developed along the San in the middle of October. It lasted for days in which fortunes varied. Gradually the Russians gained the upper hand. The Austrians attempted a flank attack thru Bukowina, but before it could threaten seriously the Slav line the Aus-

trians collapsed on the San, and the Russians re-entered Jaroslav. Six days later Przemysl was again besieged, and remained surrounded by the Russian forces until its capture in the following March. By the middle of November the Russians were once more on the outskirts of Cracow.

established a strong line across Galicia, protecting the rear of their forces in the Carpathians. A long series of operations then began in the mountains—battles in deep snows and zero temperatures—in which the Russians gradually forced their way into the passes. On March 22 they captured Przemysl, and under the im-

London air raid. Mother and son inspecting their home. A mother and her little son have returned home from a visit and this mass of debris greets their eyes.

Hungary was again raided thru the mountain passes, and the Austrians were driven from Bukowina.

Germany was forced to send additional aid to her ally. With this help the siege of Cracow was lifted, and the Russians retired to the Donajec river, where they

pulse of this success swept forward on Hungary with Buda Pest as its goal.

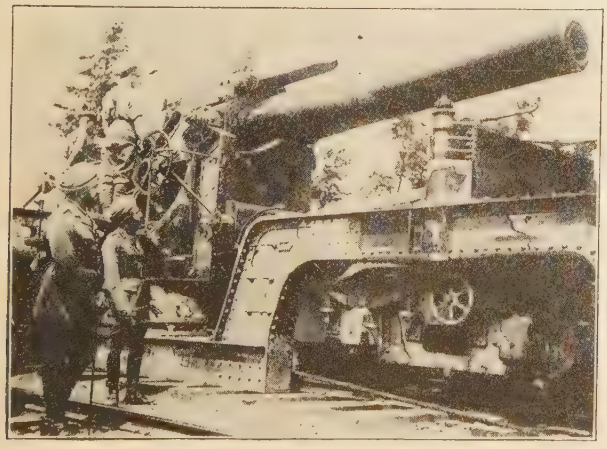
The alarmed Austrians rallied again and again to defend their frontier, fighting stubbornly for every yard of ground, and then, with the coming of May appeared Mackensen on the Donajec.

The German offensive against Russia was marked by three great efforts to conquer Poland, sieze the Vistula defenses and crush the armies of the Czar.

The first of these began in the opening days of October, 1914, with Von Hindenburg in command, fresh from his victory over the Russians at Tannenberg, in East Prussia. The German armies, admirably equipped, swept across Poland to the Vistula. They reached the outskirts of Warsaw and Ivangorod by October 17. Aviators dropped proclamations in Warsaw calling for the surrender of the city. The big guns began to shell its fortifications. Then re-enforcements suddenly attacked the left flank of the Teutons, driving it back and compelling a retreat all along the line. In perfect order Von Hindenburg's armies withdrew, moving too swiftly for the pursuing Russians, who followed to the German frontier and actually crossed into Posen at one point.

This Russian success was brief. Von Hindenburg struck again. Early in November he began a movement against both flanks of the Russian army. One came down the south bank of the Vistula from the East Russian fortress of Thorn; the other advanced northeast from Czenstochowa, whither it had retired after its failure at Ivangorod. The Russians were in serious peril of being outflanked and cut off from Warsaw and the Vistula. They fell back toward Lodz. Here, at the moment that threatened their destruction, re-enforcements from Warsaw suddenly attacked the flank and rear of Von Hindenburg's encircling movement, and the battle of Lodz began. The tables were turned. The Germans were in peril of extinction. An entire army corps surrendered. But aid was rushed to them and they cut their way out of the Slav net. The Russians fell back from Lodz, and ultimately took up positions along the Bzura river, twenty miles west of Warsaw. Thus began a long trench siege paralleling the Vistula from west of Warsaw to the Galician boundary.

First picture of the actual surrender of Jerusalem on December 9th, 1917. The only photo taken on the morning of December 9th, when Jerusalem surrendered.



The Maharaja of Patiala visited the Western front. This photo shows the Maharaja of Patiala inspecting one of the big camouflaged British guns on the Western front.

For months there was bitter fighting along the entrenched front in Poland, and

campaign and counter campaign in the Baltic provinces and East Prussia. The Russians met disaster at the Mazurian lakes, but carried out a sweeping offensive in Galicia and the Carpathians, already described, and it was this success that brought upon them the third and greatest German drive.

General Von Mackensen came upon the scene as the leader of this final attack upon the armies of the czar. He massed the greatest concentration of artillery that had been seen up to that time on the eastern front against the Russian Donajec line. On May 3, 1916, he opened fire with all his guns.

The Russian front was shattered. Mackensen captured 30,000 prisoners and drove his enemy in hasty retreat eastward. They crossed the San, abandoned Przemysl, after an effort to rally and hold it, and fell back on Lemberg. They lost Lemberg on June 22, and a week later Mackensen turned his attack north, behind the fortified line of the Vistula.

Meantime Von Hindenburg was pressing the battle hard in the Baltic provinces. By the middle of July a tremendous struggle was in progress on a 900 mile front, with Warsaw and Ivangorod as the main objectives of the Austro-German forces. They fell on August 5 and 6. By the end of August the Germans had reached Brest Litovsk.

A busy scene on a road just behind the lines. The company at the right are resting prior to taking up their march again.

The czar suddenly came from Petrograd to the battle front, removed the Grand Duke Nicholas from command of the armies, and placed himself at their

head. But it did not stay the retreat. In the middle of September Von Hindenburg drove the Russians across the Dvina, and Von Mackensen occupied Pinsk, on the edge of the marshes that bear the same name.

Then only was the Austro-German advance halted. It succeeded in gaining vast territory, and penetrating far into Russia, but it failed to destroy the Russian armies. They had escaped thru the masterly leadership of the Grand Duke. the hands of men entrusted with military administration.

But worse than graft was the treachery of officials, in some cases generals and lesser officials, who sold secrets to the foe.

The knowledge of these things began to reach the men in the trenches. They had been forced at times to fight with nail-studded clubs instead of rifles. When they learned that they were being robbed and betrayed sedition spread thru their ranks.

Advancing over newly conquered territory held its difficulties. As many as thirty Tommies were needed to move this big gun.

They had escaped the enemy; but they had not escaped the corruption, mismanagement and betrayal that obtained behind their lines in the Russian bureaucracy.

The Russian rank and file was hungry, wearied, and ill-supplied with arms and munitions. Graft reeked in Russia. Officials enriched themselves at the expense of their armies. Supplies often failed to reach the soldiers, finding their way into

Desertions were numerous during the winter of 1916-1917. The armies held their positions, but chiefly because Germany did not care to press her advance further. She was busy fomenting trouble in the Russian empire. Her agents discovering the increasing dissatisfaction in the army, were promoting it. Mutiny would serve equally as well as a victory won by direct attack.

A plot to induce Russia to make a sepa-

THE ILL-FATED LUSITANIA, CARRYING HUNDREDS OF AMERICANS, BOTH MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN, SUNK OFF COAST OF IRELAND BY A GERMAN SUBMARINE

rate peace was being engineered from Berlin with the aid of disloyal members of the government at Petrograd. It is said the czarina was not wholly innocent of participation in this conspiracy against the empire and its allies.

The winter passed with much suffering on the front for the rank and file of the Russian armies.

There was some activity in eastern Galicia. Roumania had been invaded, and the Russians were looked upon as her natural helpers, but intrigue prevented aid coming in effective form until it was too late, and the little country went the way of others that had felt the crushing heel of German militarism.

With spring there came increasing unrest in Russia. The world heard only rumors of it, but persons in Petrograd saw signs of a coming storm.

The first lightning flash from the gathering clouds was the killing of the Monk Rasputin, a mysterious and notorious individual who had for long been a court favorite, exercising a strange influence over the czarina and, at times, over the czar. It was believed that Rasputin was intriguing for Prussia, and giving his aid to what were known as the "Dark Forces," an unscrupulous cabal of courtiers and officials whose chief concern was to profit at the empire's expense, and to keep themselves in advantageous positions for the purpose. They represented the extreme of reaction, and opposed every movement of a liberalizing character.

The news that the body of Rasputin had been thrown into the Neva aroused immense enthusiasm among those who looked for the day when Russia would escape the clutches of its exploiters. It seemed to be the spark in the powder, and the explosion followed quickly.

On March 11, 1917, a revolutionary movement started in Petrograd. Soldiers

First Tommies crossing the Somme over a roughly constructed bridge into Peronne, which was captured by the British.

from the Petrograd garrison joined the workers. The following day the Duma met in defiance of the czar's orders, and a message was sent to the czar, who was then on the front with his armies, demanding his abdication.

Meantime the capital city was in turmoil. The workers were fighting the police, who, armed with machine guns, held positions in houses and on roofs, from which they attempted to slay the clamoring mob in the streets. Cossacks were called in to ride down the people as they had in many another such emergency; but this time the Cossacks refused to do the murderous work assigned them, and treated the crowd with smiling consideration.

The czar is said to have been served with the demand for his abdication while aboard a train en route for Petrograd, whither he was hastening to face the revolutionary crisis that had arisen so suddenly. He accepted the destiny prescribed for him without argument, and asked only that he be allowed to go to his palace in

the Crimea and spend his days among his flowers. This request was denied. He was taken to Petrograd and there placed in confinement.

A new cabinet was formed with Prince Lvoff, a Russian patriot of democratic spirit, as its leader. It was a coalition cabinet, including the cadet party, a conservative democratic element, and the socialists of the less radical type, represented by Kerensky.

Its life was comparatively brief. It made way for a cabinet more thoroly socialistic under Kerensky.

For a time the world hoped much from this extraordinary little man, who, in a puny frame, combined a fiery spirit and keen intelligence. But the extreme socialist element was not satisfied with the Fabian tactics of Kerensky, who attempted to hold Russia true to the allies, continue the war, and readjust internal conditions on a basis of representative government similar to that of the United States.

The extremists, known as bolsheviki, a word that means simply majority, maintained a constant agitation, harassing Kerensky's government at every step. Their attitude lent itself most conveniently to German plans, and Germany flooded Russia with agents who joined with the bolsheviki in an effort to pull down what might have developed into a stable and efficient government.

The peasants and the soldiers were urged to demand peace and an immediate distribution of the land and other property. Kerensky used all his eloquence to impel the armies to maintain the fight against Germany, and to encourage the people in support of the war; but it proved unavailing.

His effort to convene a constituent assembly for the purpose of drafting a new constitution was defeated by the bolshevik agitation. The ignorant peasantry of Russia knew nothing of constituent assemblies and constitutional forms of government; they did know the soviet, or local council, and the shrewd bolsheviki appealed to this knowledge with the promise of administration thru soviets.

Sir John French, former Commander of Victorious British Expeditionary Forces in 1914.

A returned expatriate, a Russian Jew, who called himself Trotzky, was one of the most aggressive and influential bolshevik leaders. He, like Kerensky, possessed great powers of eloquence. Associated with him was a man name Lenine, a fanatic, whose only aim in life was to overthrow the capitalist systems of the world. In this effort he was willing to take help from any quarter. It is not necessary to question his mad sincerity. It was quite compatible with honesty of conviction that he should accept help from Germany in money or men, and there is little doubt that he did. It was traitorous to Russia and freedom, but it was loyal enough to his own lunatic dream.

Between these men succeeded in overthrowing Kerensky, and seizing the government. Anarchy followed, marked by bloodshed and destruction of property. The Russian armies, now reduced to a helpless strength by desertions, were ordered demobilized, and the bolshevik regime opened negotiations with the enemy for peace.

There followed a series of conferences at Brest Litovsk between the bolshevik representatives and the German, Austrian and Bulgarian delegates. They ended by the enemy imposing terms upon Russia that stripped her of the Baltic provinces, Poland, the Ukraine, and the region of the Caucasus.

Russia lay open to German exploitation, and it was carried on with pitiless energy. The western allies and the United States, the latter by now a belligerent, looked with alarm on the situation. The possibility of German control in Russia constituted a new menace. Already German troops released from service on the east front were appearing on the western front, and Germany was replenishing her depleted stores from Russian granaries. Some day, if the extension of her power was not checked, she might even recruit new armies from among the Russian people. Plans were formulated to stay her progress. Commissioners were sent to help the Russian people. They were able to do little. Finally it was determined to send allied forces into Russia, and troops representing the western allies, Japan and the United States landed at Vladivostok, while others were landed at Archangel and on the Murman coast.

British Torpedo Boat Destroyer "Viking."

Inspection of a destroyed tunnel entrance on the Western Front at Cambrai.

Italy and The Little Nations

CHAPTER VIII

ITALY ENTERS THE WAR—ITALY ENTERS AUSTRIA—ITALIAN SUCCESSES—AUSTRIA REINFORCED BY GERMANY CHECKS ITALIAN DRIVE—ITALIAN ARMY DEMORALIZED—STAND MADE AT PIAVE RIVER—SERBIA ENTIRELY OVER RUN—MONTENEGRO CAPITULATES—ROUMANIA SIGNS PEACE TERMS—BRITISH FAILURE IN GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN—GENERAL ALLENBY SUCCESSFUL IN HOLY LAND—CONSTANTINE OF GREECE FLEES—GREECE JOINS ALLIES.

Before the war began Italy was the ally of Germany and Austria-Hungary. The alliance was of a defensive kind. Each of the three nations was pledged to go to the help of either or both of the others in the event of an attack.

Immediately after the declarations of war made by Germany against Russia and France, Italy declared her neutrality. She took the ground that the central empires had been the aggressors, and that she was under no obligation to join them in anything but a defensive war. This prompt action destroyed the triple alliance; and in its place there gradually developed the quadruple alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria—the three latter countries being, in fact, the vassal allies of Germany, executing her will and cooperating in her plans for a Pan-German empire of Middle Europe with an Asiatic annex in Syria, Mesopotamia and the remoter east.

Italy maintained her neutrality until May 1915. In the interval the country was disturbed by continual agitation. A strong and popular war party came into existence. It was provoked by the fact that Italy in earlier wars had been deprived of territory in the Trentino, in the region of the Isonzo river, Trieste and Istria. This territory, in which a population of Italian birth or ancestry preponderated, was known as Italia Irredenta, or Italy unredeemed, and there was loud clamor for its recovery.

Austria-Hungary, altho for years an ally, was not loved. In the days of her victory over Italy, when the former Italian provinces were seized, she had delimited a boundary which gave her possession of all the advantageous heights and important passes thru the Alps. Thus she had been a menacing neighbor, and the alliance, from Italy's side, had been consummated largely in order to safeguard the possibility of another attack and invasion.

The demand for war became so insistent in Italy that the government was forced to yield. No doubt existed that Italy went to war on the motion of her people rather than at the behest of her king, or of her military leaders. On May 22, 1915, she declared war on Austria. Her declaration of war on Germany did not come until more than a year later, August 27, 1916.

Italy's plan of campaign was to hold the mountain frontier along the Trentino region and the Carnic Alps, and to make her offensive against the Isonzo river front of the enemy, with Goritz and Trieste as her chief objectives.

She had vast difficulties to overcome. The work of the Italian engineers in making possible a warfare largely conducted in snow clad and cloud capped mountains is one of the marvels of the great struggle.

The Isonzo river front presented great obstacles to successful campaigning. The

Edith Cavell, whose execution by the Germans shocked the world.

Austrians held the commanding positions and were strongly fortified. They had to divert strength from the Russian front in order to meet the new assault, but they were able to maintain a defense that demanded supreme efforts on the part of Italy.

The campaign went slowly. Italian forces reached Austrian soil on the west bank of the Isonzo, and nibbled at the edges of the Carso plateau, over which lay the road to Trieste. A small advance was made into the Trentino, but was soon halted.

Then Austria summoned its strength for a counter offensive. A great effort was planned to destroy the Italian armies, and end the menace that was interfering with the operations against Russia. The Austrian offensive in the Trentino was a well conceived plan to reach the Italian plains and cut the rail communications with the Isonzo front, thus compelling a Latin retirement from the positions that threatened Goritz and Trieste. It began on May 16, 1916, and was checked by June 3. In that short space, however, the Austrians pushed through the mountains, captured the Arsiero region and reached the edge of the Italian plains. They were within twenty-five miles of their objective when the Latins brought them to a halt, and began a counter offensive that gradually reconquered all the lost territory. The Italians were aided in bringing this serious menace to a sharp conclusion by the sudden drive of General Brussiloff into Bukowina and Galicia. Austrian troops had to be withdrawn from the Trentino front to meet the new Russian advance.

There followed a period of more or less desultory fighting, and then Italy launched another great drive on the Isonzo front. It began in early August, 1916. The Goritz bridgehead and the Carso plateau were the objectives.

The attack came as a surprise to the Austrians, who had their hands pretty well occupied with keeping the Russians out of Lemberg. It opened on August 6, the Latin guns concentrating their fire on Sabatino, San Michele and the bridge across the Isonzo that was protected by these mountain positions. On August 8, in a great charge they stormed and crossed the bridge, took the mountain fortifications and reached Goritz. The city fell the following day, while the Italians drove forward routing the Carso positions of the enemy.

Across the Carso plateau, south of Goritz, lies the road to Trieste. On August 11, the advance continued along a twelve-mile front. The whole Doberdo plateau was occupied, and further gains made on the Carso. Oppacchiasella was taken the next day. The advanced line of the Latin army reached positions within thirteen miles of Trieste. The offensive rested with this for a few weeks, to be resumed in September, when more ground was gained on the Carso plateau.

In October and November the fighting shifted to the Trentino and other sectors of the Italian front, but the wedge had been driven far in toward Trieste, and the Italians were well placed for further successful operations.

They resumed their attacks in May, 1917, after a winter and spring that was marked by no significant events on either side. Under the leadership of General Cadorna they made amazing progress, sweeping over the Bainsizza plateau, northeast of Goritz, and taking practically the whole of the Carso plateau.

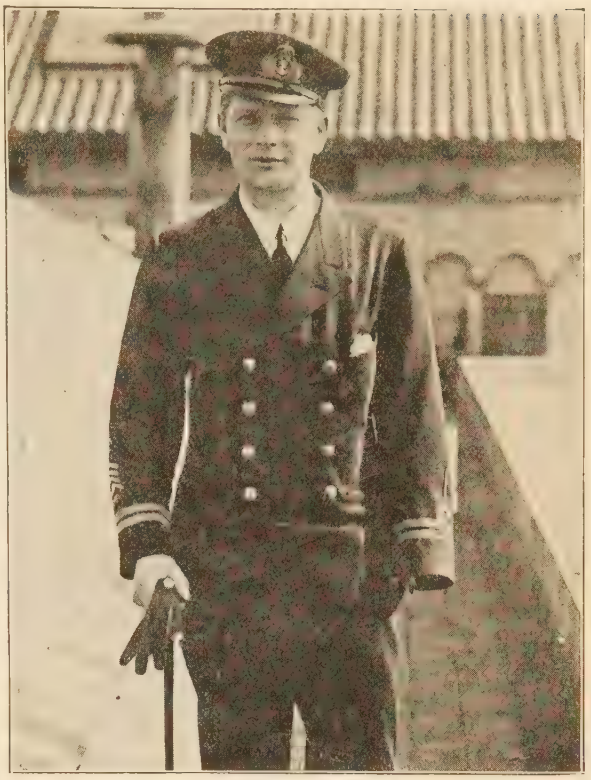
Trieste and Laibach were both menaced by these victories. Austrian collapse seemed a not improbable result of the great defeats suffered by the Hapsburg armies.

Then came a sudden reversal of affairs. Victory had thrown Cadorna off his guard. On the northern end of his Isonzo front enemy agents had been surreptitiously corrupting and demoralizing his troops.

Like lightning from a sky unclouded the bolt fell in the region of Caporetto. The enemy struck with large forces and important elements of the Italian second army, instead of resisting, threw down their arms and allowed the foe to advance unhindered.

This disaster threatened to overwhelm the Italian forces, whose greater numbers and most effective troops were on the eastern front, holding the two plateaus and the intervening valley beyond the Isonzo. The enemy was on their flank and headed with little to check him toward the main lines of communication upon which the Italian armies were absolutely dependent for safe retreat.

The situation developed into a race between the enemy and the Italians for Udine, the main railroad center. The Italians won in sufficient numbers to save a large part of their great force. But a tragic part was lost. The enemy cut off and captured some 250,000 prisoners and



Lieut. H. T. C. Walker, of the British Royal Navy, hero of the British naval attack on Zeebrugge.

enormous numbers of guns and quantities of ammunition. Cadorna fell back fighting delaying actions until he had crossed the Piave. Here he made his stand until he was disposed of and succeeded by General Diaz.

Then followed a long siege and a stubborn defense. The allies sent aid to Italy. British and French troops left the western front, and later some American units joined them, and took up positions in the Italian line.

For a long time the situation was perilous. At places the Austrians crossed the Piave. They attempted to drive down from the Asiago plateau, and repeat their earlier success. German aid was freely extended to them. They had indeed been helped by the Germans in the original drive that compelled Italy's retreat.

But repeated offensives failed to shake the Italian line, and in the summer of

The Terrific Drive by the Scottish Canadians at Ypres. This Was the First German Defeat on this Sector.

German dead in their front line trenches. It may be horrible and all that but it was the only way of defeating the Kaiser.

1918 Italy countered. She cleaned the western bank of the Piave of all hostile forces and regained important positions on the northern mountain front. Then she halted.

The great climax came late in October and early in November of 1917, when, with the Germans in full retreat on the western front, Italy struck again. The Austrian lines broke; demoralization spread thru the ranks; the armies fled before the pursuing allied forces, and thus routed their commander was forced to throw up his hands and ask for an armistice.

It was granted. Its drastic terms were equivalent to a complete surrender. Italy occupied the Trentino, the Isonzo region, Trieste, Istria and the Dalmatian coast.

In the debacle that followed for the dual monarchy the emperor abdicated, and the patchwork empire of central Europe broke up into several parts, each claiming the right of independence and self-government. The Germans and Magyars parted company; the Czecho-Slovaks and the Jugo-Slavs established republics.

When the full story of the war is written there will be no more brilliant chapter in it than that which tells of how Serbia, in its early months, routed the Austrian forces and drove them from her soil. With the Belgians, the Serbs have earned title to be considered among the bravest of peoples.

Belgrade was under bombardment by August 1, and in the third week in August an Austrian army that had crossed the Drina was routed at the Jedar, and driven back to its own territory. Then the tables were turned. Serbians and Montenegrins swarmed into Bosnia, and approached Serajevo. This continued through September. With the coming of October, the Austrians regained the initiative. Their army had been re-enforced. They had some German aid. Crossing the Drina again they moved forward until they had reached the Oriental railroad, running from Belgrade to Constantinople, through Nish and Sofia. Belgrade was caught on flank and rear, and the garrison had to evacuate it and retreat.

The Austrians reached Valievo. They were on the high road to conquest. Then happened one of the most dramatic events in the whole war—an event never to be forgotten. On December 9, 1914, with the shattered forces of the Serbians giving way before the enemy, there rode upon the field the erect and venerable figure of King Peter. The white haired monarch rallid his discouraged troops, and leading them in person, swept forward against the enemy. The astonished Austrians were beaten, routed, driven back from Valievo, from Belgrade — back across Drina and Save and Danube, until the soil of Serbia was free from the foot

of her foe. It was a scene belonging to the warfare of centuries gone—a scene we are not likely to see repeated in the history of the world.

Serbia remained free until the Great Mackensen drive began in October, 1915.

Von Mackensen had displayed his military talents in the campaign against Russia. He was fresh from the scenes of victory. With an army of 400,000 men he hurled himself against the Serbs. The Austrian force that had unsuccessfully attempted to overrun the little country of peasant heroes was greatly strengthened by German troops, and the leadership of Germany's most brilliant strategist gave the new campaign an element of danger far exceeding the earlier effort.

The Serbs fought courageously, but they were outnumbered and outgunned. Moreover by the middle of the month they were treacherously struck on the flank by Bulgaria, who entered the war as a Teuton ally. King Constantine of Greece made a scrap of paper of his treaty pledging aid to Serbia, and, although the allies landed forces at Saloniki, they were unable to advance with sufficient strength and rapidity to afford the Serbians aid.

Belgrade fell on October 10. By October 28 the Bulgars and Teutons had effected a junction in northeastern Serbia. Nish was captured on November 7, and the Bulgars sweeping west reached Monastir by November 19. A month later the Anglo-French forces, that had attempted to push up the Vardar valley, fell back to Saloniki. The conquest of Serbia was complete.

British outposts ever on watch for enemy attacks. This photograph shows an alert outpost in the Ypres Salient.

The British Advance in the West. Trenches captured from the Germans during the great British offensive in the West.

But a large part of the Serbian army had escaped in one of the most terrible retreats of history, across the snowy mountains of Albania. That army, reorganized, is now back on Serbian soil, fighting with a magnificent courage for the redemption of its fatherland. Monastir, that fell into the hands of the Bulgars in November, 1915, was once again in possession of the Serbs in November, 1916.

Serbia remained, except for a narrow fringe in the Monastir region, a conquered land until the late summer of 1918. Then began an attack by the allied armies, in which the Serbs played a magnificent part, that routed the Bulgar troops, left to hold the Macedonian front, and brought the surrender of Bulgaria. A few weeks later the Serbs were back at

Belgrade, and when Germany and Austria signed armistice terms, they had crossed the Danube and stood on Austrian soil.

Roumania's participation in the war was a tragic disappointment to herself and to her allies. She hesitated a long time under pressure from both sides, and finally reached decision in August 1916 to join the entente countries against the central empires. Once the decision was reached she acted with more precipitation than wisdom. On August 27 she began an invasion of Transylvania, throwing her armies across the Carpathians and making swift advances.

Duke of Connaught, accompanied by General Currie and other Canadian officers, inspecting Canadian soldiers.

Then the redoubtable Von Mackensen was sent to subdue her. He struck her in the flank, using Bulgaria as a base and driving north into the Dobrudja, between the Danube and the Black Sea. She tried to hold him. A distress call was sent to Russia, but Russia was in the hands of traitors and German agents, and the help she sent was wholly inadequate. Von Mackensen threatened Bucharest from the east, and Von Falkenhayn attacked the Roumanian armies in Transylvania. Between two fires the little country was helpless. Its intrepid forces that had crossed the Carpathians began a retreat before Von Falkenhayn. They fought courageously every step of the road, and gave ground only when defense was no longer possible. November was a month of repeated disasters, and on December 6 the enemy entered the capital.

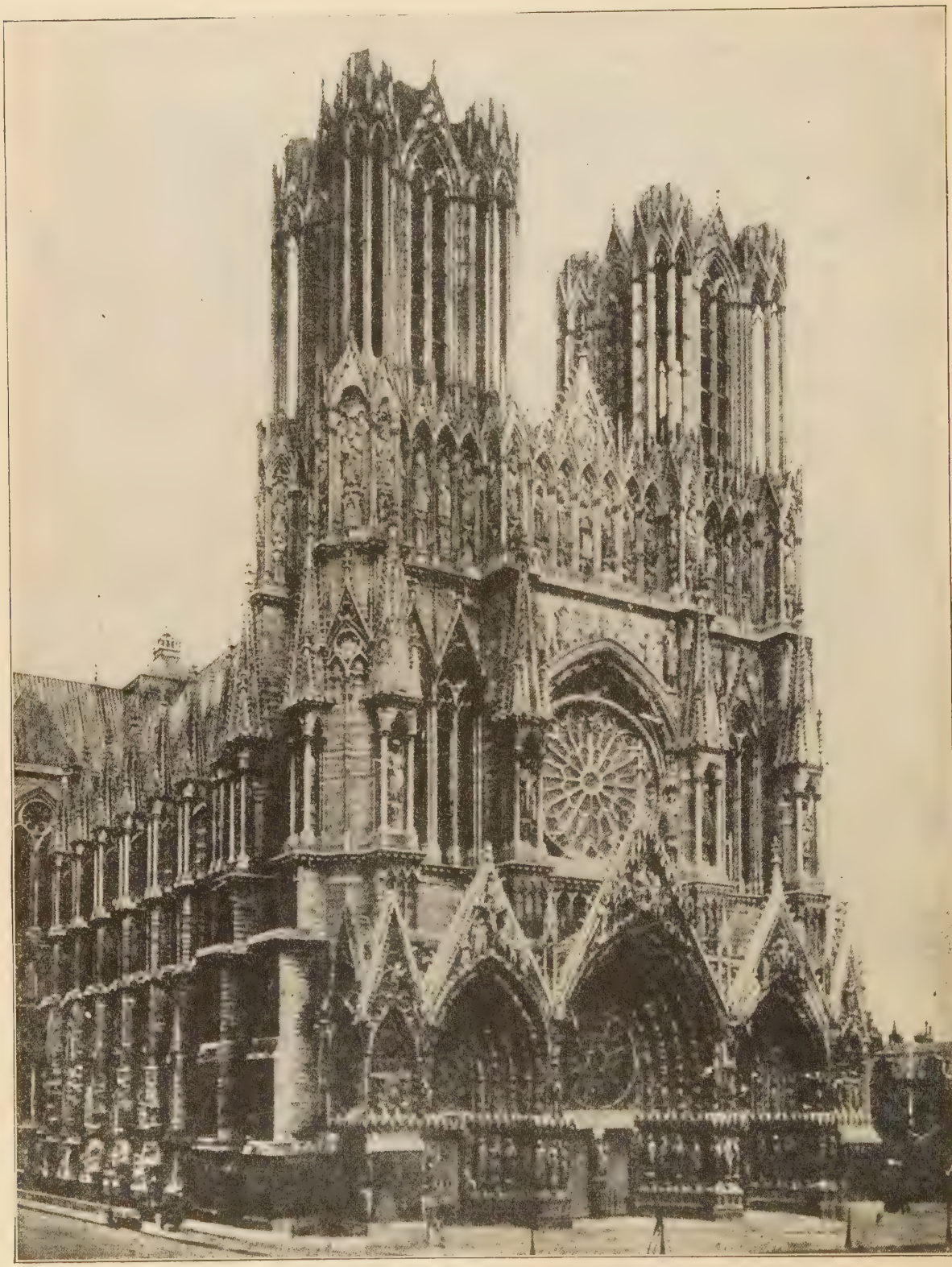
Russian aid then screened the shattered Roumanian army while it retired beyond the Sereth, and for months thereafter, until the revolution ended Russian resistance, the Slav forces held the Danube-Sereth front against the foe.

When Russia entered the peace con-

King of Belgium and Staff.

ference of Brest Litovsk and thru its bolshevik agents made terms with the enemy, Roumania was forced to follow in a like humiliating surrender. The Brest Litovsk treaty was signed on March 2, 1918, and the armistice of Bucharest on March 4. Harsh terms were imposed upon Roumania by the enemy. The little country could only pray that allied victory in the west front would bring her deliverance.

The little nations of Europe were not



The Magnificent Cathedral at Reims, France.

the only ones affected by the war. The people of Armenia and Syria and Mesopotamia felt its tragic pressure under the campaigns of the Turks.

Turkey, as an ally of the central empires, served the important end to them of keeping the Dardanelles and Constantinople out of the hands of Russia and the allies, and thus preserving the bridge from Europe to Asia over which Germany planned to construct her great Hamburg to Bagdad highway.

Great Britain was vitally interested in this phase of the struggle. Her possessions in India and her suzerainty in Egypt were menaced by the Prussian ambition, and by the vassal aid that Turkey was giving to Berlin. Hence, early in the war, she made two efforts to check the Turk and his German master.

One of these was the Gallipoli campaign, in which France joined her. It was a daring but disastrous adventure. It had for its object originally the forcing of the Dardanelles by a naval attack. The British and French warships penetrated the Narrows for some miles, but under the fire from the shore batteries, and facing the subtle perils of mines and submarines, they were compelled to desist after several great vessels—including the Bouvet, the Ocean and the Irresistible—had been sunk.

Photograph of M. Raymond Poincaire elected president of the French Republic, January 17, 1913. His term of office is seven years.

Madam Poincaire, wife of the President of France.

Then it was decided to land troops on the Gallipoli peninsula, constituting the northern side of the straits. The plan was to take the shore batteries, occupy the peninsula, menace Constantinople from the land, and, with the straits freed from enemy control, to enter the Black Sea with the navy. Had the plan succeeded

Left to right, Marshall Joseph Joffre, one of the French Commissioners; Ambassador Jules Jusserand.

Turkey would have been utterly crushed.

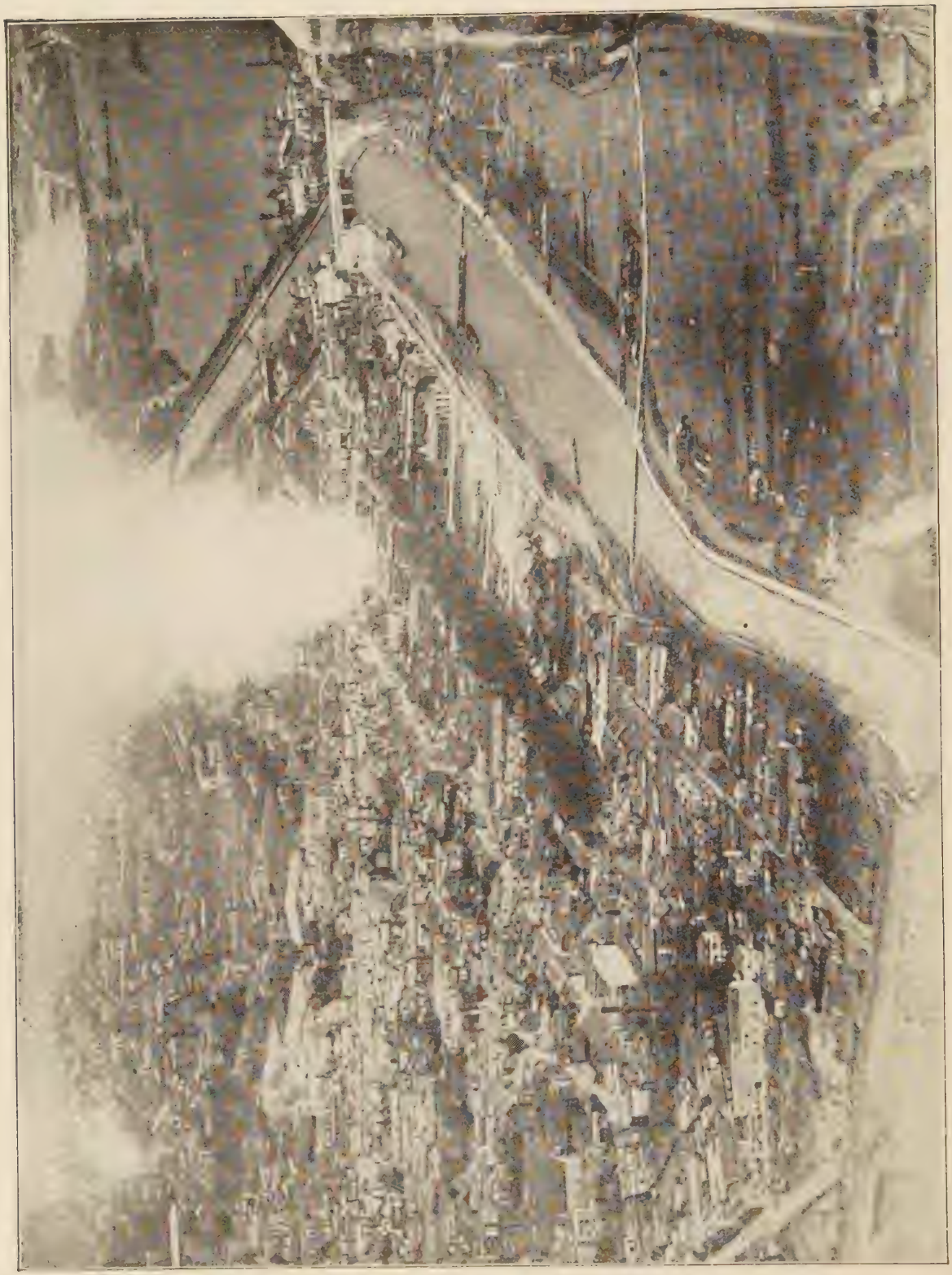
On April 21, 1915, troops were landed under heavy fire at various points on the peninsula. British and French troops cooperated. A large element of the British force was composed of Australians and New Zealanders, whose magnificent fighting qualities and great daring earned for them the admiration of the world. These troops—known as the Anzacs—occupied positions near Suvla bay.

The Turks had been allowed time to occupy and fortify the peninsula, and they made a stubborn resistance. There are no better fighters when they are well officered than the soldiers of the Sultan, and they were organized and under the command of Germans in many instances. Month after month was marked by a bitter and costly conflict. Allied gains were slow.

Early in August 1915 the British had a great opportunity to win a decisive victory. In the Suvla bay region, where the peninsula is narrower than at some other points, the Turk had been defeated and was in retreat. Had the retreat been followed up by an instant renewal of attack, the British might have cut across the peninsula, isolating the Turks on its western end from their base. But there

The destruction of Louvain. A view of the famous Cathedral of St. Pierre known the world over for its famous chimes.

BRITISH TANKS IN THE BATTLE FOR THE MASTERY OVER THE TURKISH FORCES AT BAGDAD



Thousands of lives lost in battle for this city. Remarkable aeroplane view of the City of St. Quentin, taken by a French Aviator. This city was in the hands of the Germans for over a year.

was some failure on the part of the command, and the opportunity was lost. The Turks were given time to rally and obtain re-enforcements. As a result of this failure General Sir Ian Hamilton was recalled, and Major General Munro sent to succeed him.

But the change in command did not greatly help the situation. In December 1915 it was decided to abandon the campaign, and the British were withdrawn from the Suvla bay region. The following January the remainder of the allied forces bade farewell to the peninsula, leaving behind many a wooden cross to mark the graves of heroes who had died in vain.

Concurrently with the Gallipoli campaign the British had begun a campaign in Mesopotamia and had been compelled to defend their Egyptian front.

The Mesopotamian campaign opened in November 1914, when Basra was seized at the northern end of the Persian Gulf. The British were impelled by the need of preventing Germany securing access to the Gulf, where the establishment of a naval base would have been a direct threat to India. They were also intent upon blocking Germany's road thru Bagdad to Persia. Already German agents were busy in Persia instigating revolt.

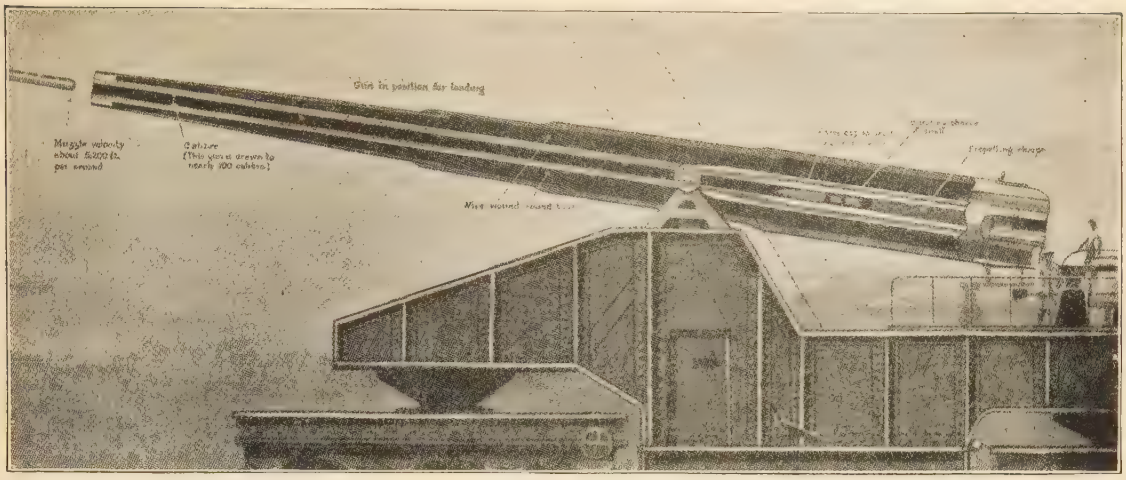
By seizing Basra a base was obtained from which Great Britain could control the Arab tribes, whom Turkey, as Berlin's agent, was attempting to enlist in a "holy war." Operations went slowly at first, but successfully. In November 1915 the British had occupied Kut-el-Amara on the Tigris, about half way north to Bagdad, and General Townshend was nearing the ancient city of the caliphs.

Then came a serious reverse. Within eighteen miles of Bagdad the British were routed by the Turks, and forced to retreat. They fell back to Kut, and there stood. The Turks besieged the city.

A Zeppelin over Paris. A Zeppelin sighted over Paris boulevards. It can be plainly seen in this picture.

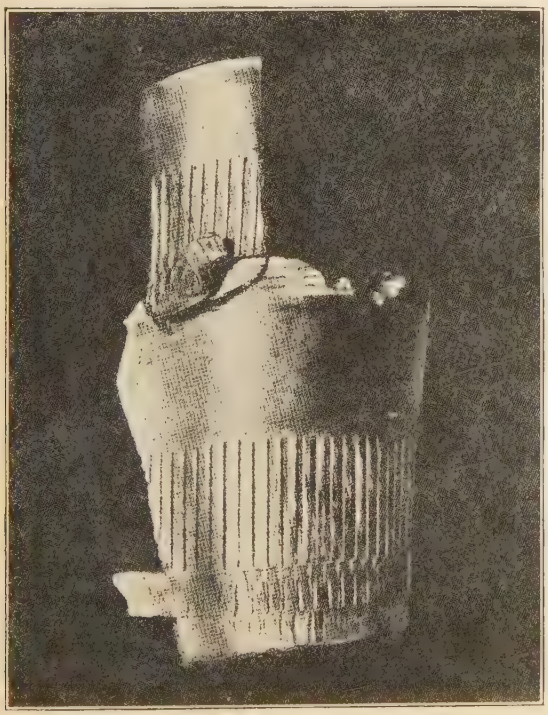
General Aylmer and Sir Percy Lake attempted to reach the city with re-enforcements and raise the siege, but failed before the powerful Sannayat position. On April 29, 1916, after 117 days, General Townshend surrendered to the Turks. His garrison had been starved into submission.

France's Colonial Troops. The colonials in the photograph are going through barbed wire entanglements.


Gun in position for loading
Muzzle velocity about 5200 ft. per second
Caliber (This gun is grown to nearly 100 calibers)
Rifling
Propelling charge

Heavy Gun Supposed to Have Been the Type to Shell Paris, a Distance of 75 Miles.

It was a humiliating termination to the first stage of a promising campaign. But the British are not easily daunted. In the following December, with a new army under the command of General Maude, they resumed the campaign. On February 24, 1917, they re-entered Kut. The Turks were badly demoralized, and the advance against them was continued without interval. On March 11 he entered Bagdad. From that time on the Turk was always in retreat. Expeditionary forces drove many miles north beyond Bagdad, and northwest along the Euphrates toward Aleppo.



Copper bands on the gigantic shell used in the bombarding of Paris. This section was found in a street of Paris after a shell struck nearby.

In the meantime General Allenby was conducting his Palestine campaign. The Turks had been routed on the Egyptian front, and the British had crossed the desert of Sinai, and entered the Holy Land on its southern border.

On March 27 they met the main forces of the enemy near Gaza and defeated them with heavy losses. For some months thereafter progress was slow. Roads had to be constructed and communications maintained across the desert with the base in Egypt. All the fresh water for the British army was brought across the desert in conduits.

In the autumn of 1917, however, General Allenby got his movement under way. Beersheba was taken on October 31. Gaza and Jaffa, the latter the Mediterranean port of Jerusalem, fell in November. As Christmas drew near the world awaited with expectancy news that

Big French Railway Gun. Here is one of the big railway guns which did excellent work on the Western front. These mobile guns could be shifted to any part of the line and had been engaged in holding the French lines and keeping back the Germans.

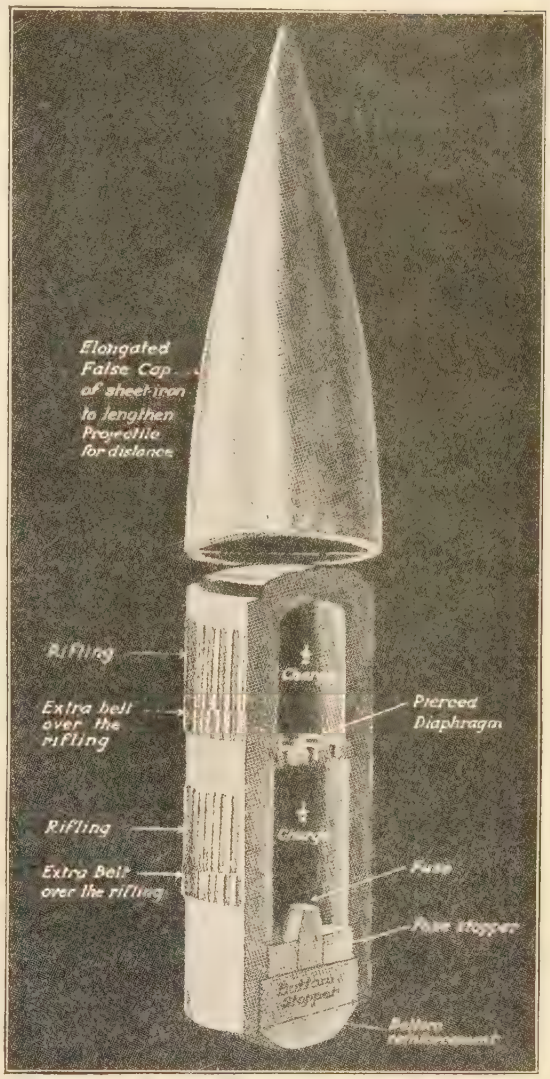
the Holy City itself had returned to Christian occupation and control. It was thought General Allenby might time its capture for Christmas day, but being more of a soldier than a sentimentalist, he took it at the first opportunity and entered it on foot, in modest recognition of its sacred character, on December 11.

The fall of Jerusalem marked the beginning of the end for Turkey in Syria. During 1918 General Allenby continued his northward progress, slowly overcoming natural obstacles and enemy opposition. Aleppo, the gateway to Asia Minor, was his goal. Once at this important junction point, where the railroad branches to go east toward Bagdad and south toward Mecca, he knew the whole of Syria and Mesopotamia would be in Christian hands.

Early in October his long journey ended. He reached Aleppo, and the Turkish armies still left in northern Mesopotamia were cut off from Constantinople. On the last day of October Turkey surrendered. Thus the Armenians and Syrians were freed from the tyranny of the Ottoman empire, but not before untold thousands of them had suffered horrors that cannot be named, and multitudes had perished from starvation and abuse.

In the indictment of Germany must be charged not only the atrocities she perpetrated on the people of Belgium and France, but the brutal massacres in Armenia, carried out by her vassal ally without a word of protest or a restraining finger from Berlin.

The part that Greece played in the war was not understood by many people. There were those who charged the allied nations with treating Greece as Germany had treated Belgium. Here are the facts:



A diagram of the mammoth shell, probably the one used in the immense gun located in St. Gobain woods which bombarded Paris a distance of seventy-five miles. The destruction caused by these gigantic shells was very great, and the Parisians were continually in a state of terror until the Allies made a concentrated attack and drove the German forces beyond the Paris range.

Germany violated a treaty to enter Belgium.

The allies entered Greece to keep a treaty.

Germany entered Belgium by violence.

The allies entered Greece by invitation of the constitutional government, of which Venizelos was then premier.

Types of French Troops Who Entered Germany to Keep the Enemy in Order Until Peace Was Declared.

Germany killed Belgians and burned their towns.

The allies respected the lives and property of the Greeks.

Germany bled Belgium white with taxation.

The allies kept Greece alive with loans.

Great Britain, France and Russia were the three powers that gave Greece its independence and placed the father of Constantine on the throne. They were obligated by treaty to preserve the dynasty and the constitutional government of Greece. The treaty further provided that they might land troops on Greek soil by common agreement among themselves in order to fulfill their treaty obligations.

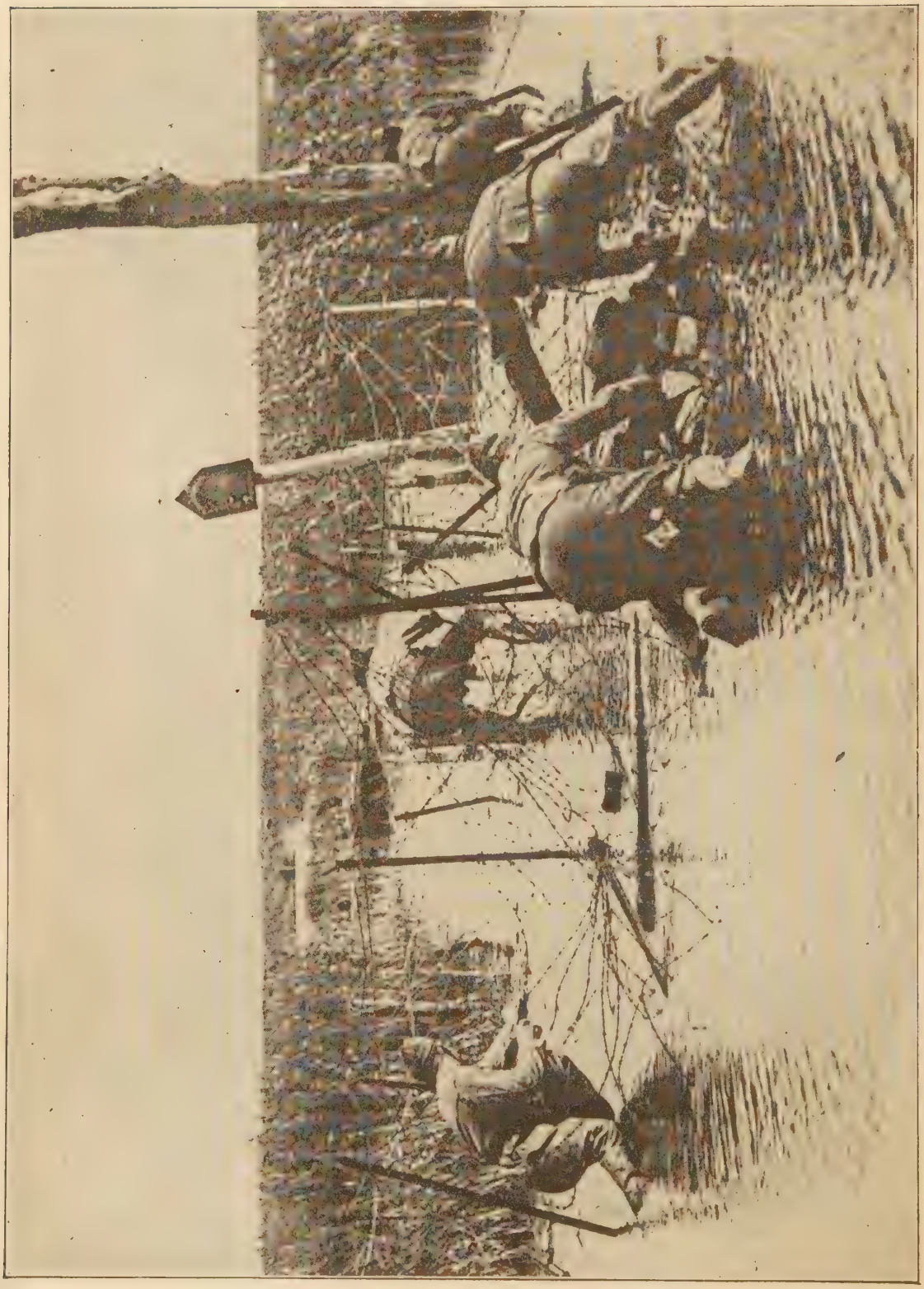
When Constantine refused to recognize the vote of the people that returned the Venizelist government after its forced resignation he over-threw constitutional government. This fact justified the presence of the allies in Greece, aside from their invitation, and aside from the fact that they were there to fulfill for Greece her treaty pledge to Serbia, which Constantine refused to keep.

When Constantine fled from Greece he knew that evidence of his base treachery had been discovered. He was the conscious tool of Germany. His plea to be permitted to remain neutral was a dishonest plea. He was never neutral.

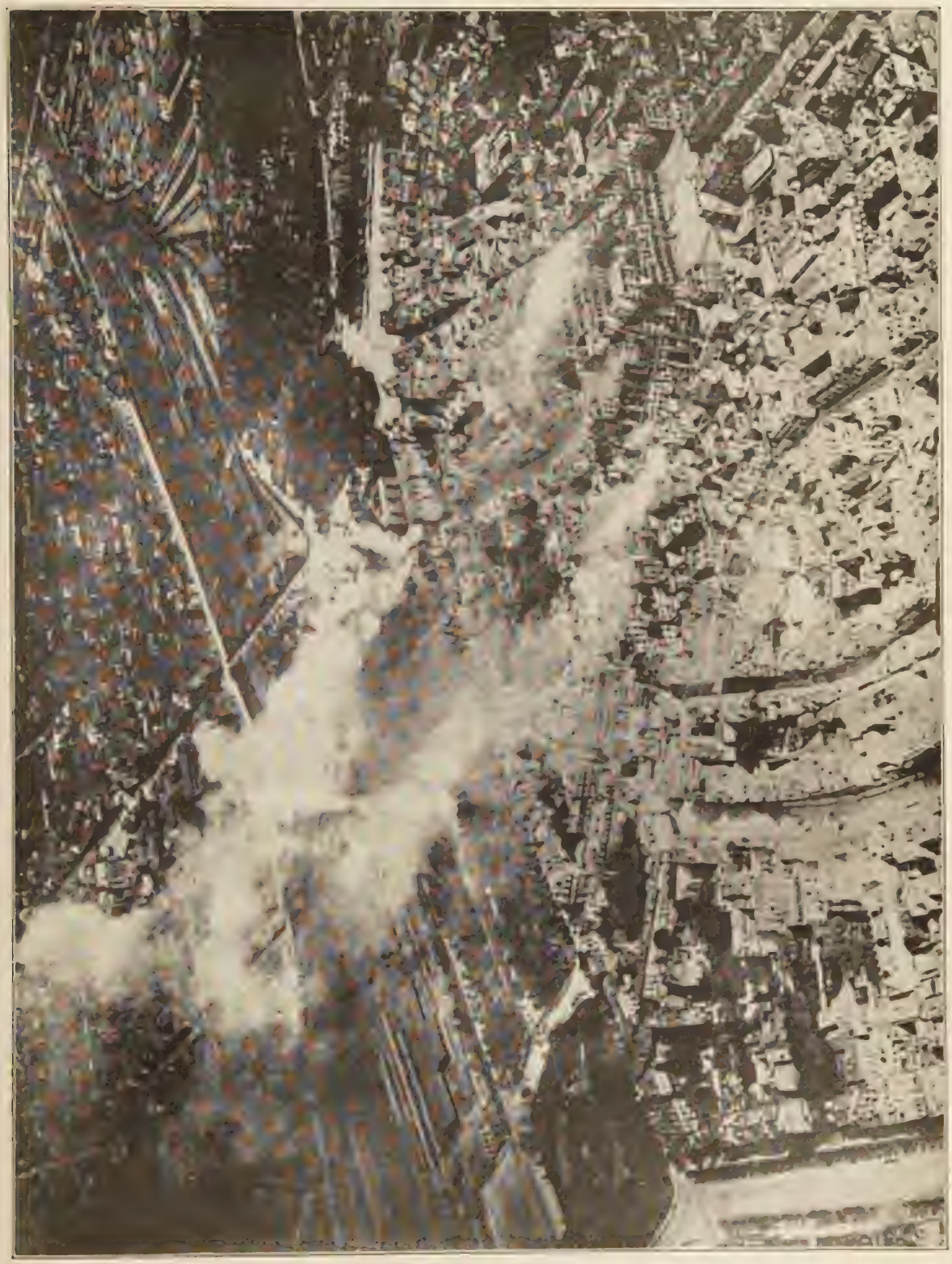
Capt. George Guynemer, the leading French aviator, and Lieut. Vosse, (in oval), a leading German aviator, meet death at almost the same time.

In the last year of the war the Greeks, freed from the incubus of a Berlin-controlled monarch, joined with the Serbs, Italians, French and British in driving the Bulgar from the soil of Macedonia. The spirit of Greece was always with the allies.

French Troops Going Over the Top and Entering the Enemy's Wire Entanglements.



Americans Cutting Wire Entanglements Prior to a Drive.



Remarkable photo of the Germans burning Reims. Incendiary shells can be seen falling, adding to the conflagration.

LOOPING TO ESCAPE THE MURDE

RE FROM THE ENEMY PLANES

Chateau-Thierry Liberated. This is one of the first photographs to arrive in this country of the battle-scarred Chateau-Thierry, where the Americans successfully stopped and defeated the Germans in their drive on Paris. The photograph shows women and children who had remained in the town during the occupation of the Germans, walking across the destructed streets.

The War On The Sea

CHAPTER IX

BRITISH FLEET MASTER OF SEAS — GERMAN SEA RAIDS STOPPED — U. S. AUGMENTS BRITISH SEA FORCES — BATTLE OFF JUTLAND — U-BOAT WARFARE — LUSITANIA SUNK.

In no war since the beginning of the world has the sea played a part so important as in this war.

Consider a moment the position of the central empires, and then the position of the allied nations.

There was no fighting front of decisive significance that Germany and Austria-Hungary could not reach by land, and there was none, except the Mesopotamian and Syrian fronts, more than 500 miles from Berlin.

The central powers and their vassal allies had land communication. The transport of troops and materials could be done wholly by rail, and without risk of attack by the enemy, or of any enemy interference.

For example in shifting her armies back and forth between the French and Russian fronts Germany ran no danger of loss thru hostile efforts. She could move men and guns to the Macedonian and Mesopotamian fronts without considering the possibility that her enemies would block their road of travel or destroy them en route.

But Great Britain could not reach any front without crossing seas or channels. Every man she sent to war, every ton of food and munitions, had to be protected against submarine attack. In order to keep contact with her Russian ally Great Britain had to travel thousands of miles around the North Cape of Scandinavia, to Archangel. To reach the Macedonian front she had to travel the length of the most dangerous of all the seven seas—the Mediterranean. If the Mediterranean had been created for the express purpose of making things easy for the U-boats, its configuration could not have been improved upon. In order to reach the Mesopotamian front Great Britain had to risk these same waters, and continue thru the Red Sea to the Persian Gulf—a distance of 9,000 miles.

Half a million soldiers came 3,000 miles across the Atlantic to fight with their British comrades, and were kept continually supplied by transport between Canada and the front for four years. Half a million came round Good Hope or thru the Suez from Australia and New Zealand, and were in like manner provided.

France sent troops to the east and risked the perils of the sea. Italy, washed by the Mediterranean, was dependent upon sea transport for food and coal and almost every other essential.

And all these countries relied upon America as a source of supply, and upon the Atlantic as a line of communication with the food, and munitions and raw materials of the American market.

Finally, when the great crisis of the war developed, and the life and death struggle on the plains of Picardy and the banks of the Marne was being watched breathlessly by the world, the whole issue depended

French Scout Troops entering Laon after the German retirement.

upon whether America could get 1,500,000 men across the sea in time.

It is evident, therefore, that the sea constituted one of the biggest problems the allies had to face. They had to make the sea safe for transport and serviceable as a line of communication. If they failed in this the war was lost.

As obviously the sea presented to Germany her greatest opportunity. It was the most vulnerable point at which to strike her enemies.

Hence the struggle for the sea became, in many respects, the supreme struggle of the war.

In this struggle Great Britain played the part that saved the world from a triumph of Prussianism. Weak as she was numerically and in material equipment for land warfare at the beginning of the war, on sea she was mighty, and she moved to the defense of civilization and the great ocean highways with power and promptitude.

It happened that the British fleet was mobilized for maneuvers when the war cloud gathered in Europe. Instead of demobilizing it slipped quietly up to a rendezvous in northern waters, and awaited developments. Thus it was ready the instant war was declared to meet and fight the enemy.

The enemy, who probably entertained hopes of a swift descent upon the shores of Great Britain and a sweeping campaign by fast cruisers against enemy commerce, modified his plans. He did not dare to challenge the British fleet to do battle.

French soldiers moving up to the front. This British official photograph shows a detachment of stocky French poilus marching up to the front lines to meet the Huns.

Several enemy cruisers were at large when the war began, notably the Emden. These engaged in raiding tactics. They sank many thousands of tons of allied shipping, ignoring wholly the requirement

of international law that their prizes should be taken into port to have their status determined by a prize court.

However the commanders of these raiders were humane. They made provision for the safety of passengers and crew, and this consideration entitled them to the respect which even the allies felt for their daring and courage. Had Germany confined herself to such operations as the Emden conducted she would not countered a British squadron of lighter armament in the Pacific, off Coronel on the coast of Chile. Rear-admiral Craddock was in command of the British squadron. He was maneuvered into an unfortunate position. After a courageous fight against odds in which he went down with his flagship, the Good Hope, the rest of his squadron, excepting the Monmouth, managed to disengage itself. The Monmouth followed the Good Hope

Shell from big German gun kills many in Paris nursery. One of the shells fired by the big German gun in the forest of St. Gobans, a distance of about eighty miles from Paris, fell in a nursery and created the awful havoc shown above.

have sunk in the eyes of the world to the level of national degradation that now marks her.

But the raiders were pursued and captured one after another. An Australian cruiser, the Sydney, ran down the Emden off Cocos Island in the Indian ocean on November 9, 1914.

Prior to this, however, a German squadron, under Admiral von Spee, en- to the bottom.

This was the first important naval encounter in the war, and it naturally gave great satisfaction to Germany and her friends, of whom, at this time, she had not a few in America and thruout the world. The von Spee victory was a blow at the supremacy of Britain on the sea.

A month later, on December 8, 1914, von Spee was cruising north on the oppo-

site side of the continent. He was looking for victims in the region of the Falkland Islands—British islands off the coast of Patagonia.

Concealed in one of the deep harbors of the Falkland group lay a British cruiser squadron under the command of Vice-admiral Sturdee. It was waiting for the Germans, and as they steamed northward past the islands, it suddenly sallied out and attacked. Before the enemy fully realized what was happening he had lost his flagship, the Scharnhorst, and the battle cruisers Gneisenau, Leipzig and Nurnberg.

That incident just about finished the surface efforts of the German navy. Such activities as were later engaged in by German battleships took place in waters immediately adjacent to Germany or Great Britain. The waging of war on allied commerce was left to the U-boat.

The story of the U-boat's depredations is too long to tell in detail. The history of the war, exhaustively related, will need a large volume devoted exclusively to the U-boat.

It became, at the climax of its destructiveness, the most serious peril the allies had to face, and, in the end, it was the utter undoing of Germany.

French warriors on horseback. General Joffre had kept these and nearly all his other mounted men from within rifle range of the Germans. These men, who were photographed while reconnoitering in Somme region, were as fine cavalry as the world ever saw. In their two years of service back of the trenches they had time to master the technique of their kind of warfare.

The U-boats had enjoyed several notable successes in the opening months of the war. A number of British war ships had been sunk, and there was no little uneasiness lest Germany should be able to nibble down the strength of Britain's navy ship by ship.

On September 5, the light cruiser Pathfinder was sunk by the U-2 at the entrance to the Firth of Forth; on Septem-

From left to right: Marshal Foch, General Pershing, Madame Dubail, Marshal Joffre, General Dubail and Son. Gens. Pelletier and Galopin in rear to either side of Marshal Joffre.

ber 22 the U-boats had a field day. They caught the armoured cruiser Aboukir in the North Sea just after she had parted from her sister ships the Hogue and the Cressy. The Aboukir was seen to be in distress by the other cruisers, and they went to her aid. This was exactly what the enemy had hoped would happen. As they neared the sinking ship each of them received in her hull a torpedo from the hiding submarine. All three cruisers went down with the loss of 1,400 lives. The cruisers were old and almost obsolete. The loss of life was the most serious phase of the incident. Germany was jubilant. She saw the destruction of the British fleet by "attrition". The U-boat commander responsible for the coup—Otto Weddigen—was decorated and became a national hero.

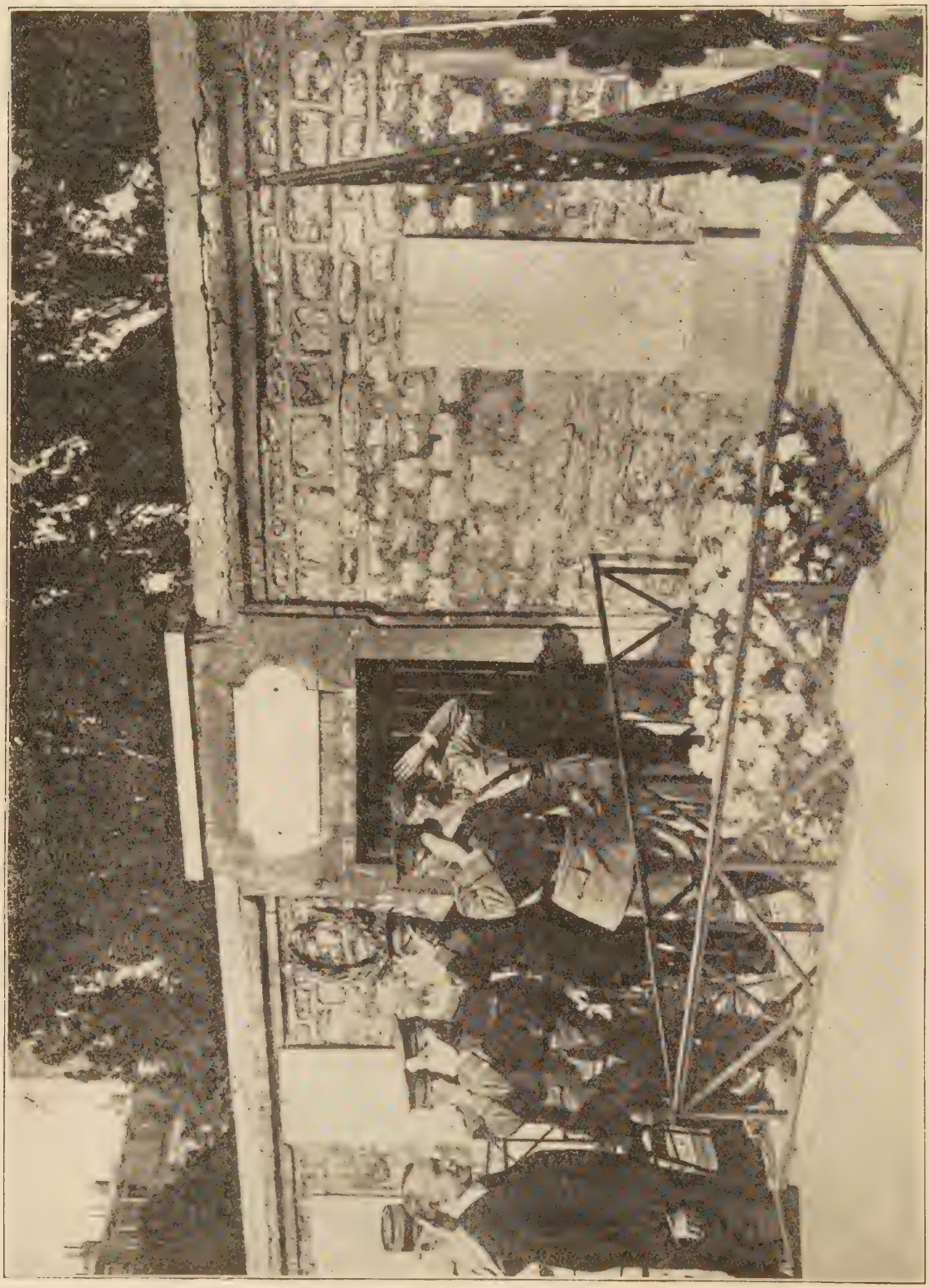
But the British had learned a lesson. Instructions were given that in case of a ship being torpedoed other ships must not go to the rescue, but must take every precaution to ensure their own safety. Furthermore plans were considered and agreed upon for protecting the navy from the war of attrition without in any measure lessening its efficacy as a menace and a blockading force against the enemy.

Losses to battle ships in North Sea and Atlantic waters became rare events. The enemy's successes were largely confined to the Mediterranean, where the problems of defense were exceedingly difficult, and the treachery of the King of Greece made murder easy for the U-boat.

Germany soon realized that she had a long and probably disappointing task ahead of her in an effort to pick off the great British fleet one ship at a time. Her naval experts began to turn their attention more definitely to the destruction of allied commerce. This was wise policy. To attack the allied lines of communication and cut off the armies in France, Macedonia, Egypt and Mesopotamia from their sources of food supply and munitions meant to compel the capitulation of the allied countries.

Marshal Petain, the Defender of Verdun.

Germany had scattered mines in the waters adjacent to the British Isles. German ships carrying neutral flags had engaged in this murderous work. It was a clear violation of international law. No nation had the right to make the common highways of the sea unsafe for neutral shipping and noncombatant merchant vessels of the enemy by the indiscriminate placing of mines.



Gen. Pershing and Allied Leaders at the Grave of Lafayette.

As a consequence of this action Great Britain in November 1914 announced that a safe channel for neutral shipping would be maintained in the North Sea for all ships entering and leaving it by the Straits of Dover. That meant British ships would sweep up enemy mines and guarantee safety in the swept and guarded waters. Ships taking the northern passage did so at their own peril.

safety of crew and passengers. Neutral ships were told that they ran danger in entering the zone, as a result of "incidents inevitable in sea warfare."

That was the beginning of Germany's great U-boat campaign to starve England into submission. Predictions were made in Germany that England would be compelled to yield in a comparatively short time.

Kemmel Hill Before the Germans Attacked. This was the French commander's post on Mount Kemmel the battle of April 24, when the Germans stormed and captured part of the hill.

Von Tirpitz characterized this action of Great Britain as the closing of the North Sea to neutrals, and hinted at reprisals. The reprisals came in the announcement of the German government on February 4, 1915, that the waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland were a war region, and that every enemy merchant ship found in these waters on and after February 18 would be destroyed, without guarantee of warning or provision for the

Further it was the beginning of the long controversy between the United States and Germany over her attempt to make piracy and murder legitimate on the high seas. The declaration of U-boat warfare was followed almost at once by President Wilson's note warning Germany that America would hold her to "strict accountability" for offenses against the law of nations and humanity.

To continue the story of the U-boat

war in detail would be merely to relate sinking after sinking, crime after crime against the innocent and the helpless. From the torpedoing of merchant ships without warning the Germans passed to the diabolical practise of shelling open life-boats with women and children in them.

No brutality was too terrible, and the brutal deeds were met with rejoicing and approval by the German people. To this hour no voice has been raised in Germany

"Whoever cannot prevail upon himself to approve from the bottom of his heart the sinking of the Lusitania—whoever cannot conquer his sense of the gigantic cruelty to unnumbered perfectly innocent victims, and give himself up to honest delight at this victorious exploit of German defensive power—him we judge to be no true German."

It was such utterances as these that later arose to refute the arguments of men who tried to draw distinction between the

Real dogs of war on duty in the trenches. People often talked of the "dogs of war" but the dogs they thought of then were far different from these real dogs in the trenches.

to condemn the massacres of the seas, or to regret such offenses as the torpedoing of the Lusitania and the Sussex.

When the Lusitania was sunk, with a loss of 1,154 lives, a medal was struck in Germany to commemorate the occasion, and Pastor D. Baumgarten, a prominent German clergyman, in the course of an address on the Sermon on the Mount, declared:

German rulers and the German people.

After the sinking of the Lusitania more notes were exchanged between the United States and Germany, and America began a long season of waiting for an "overt" act on the part of the enemy—an act of open and deliberate hostility.

In August the White Star steamer Arabic was sunk, struck by a torpedo without warning of any kind. There

were 424 persons on board of whom 26 were Americans. While the lives of all were endangered only 30 were lost, of whom two were Americans.

After some argument Count von Bernstorff, on behalf of his government, disavowed the sinking of the Arabic, and assured President Wilson that a recurrence of like incidents was considered "out of the question."

On February 9, 1916, Germany sent her last note on the Lusitania affair, in which she declared she was willing to pay a full indemnity for the lives of American victims—as tho that were possible—and repeated the pledge that "unarmed merchantmen shall not be sunk without warning and unless the safety of the passengers and crew can be assured."

And a little less than a month later came the sinking of the Sussex, with a loss of some 80 lives. The Sussex was a channel steamer carrying passengers from Folkstone to Dieppe. She had 25 Americans on board, some of whom were injured. The U-boat attacked without any warning and made no effort to save the victims of its torpedo.

Germany attempted to evade the Sussex issue. She suggested a mine might have caused the disaster; she raised the point that the Sussex was armed, or that she was a mine-layer or a warship of some sort. These assertions and allegations were all disproved.

President Wilson on April 26 sent Germany a note that practically informed her she had been caught in repeated lies and deceit, and concluded with the ominous declaration:

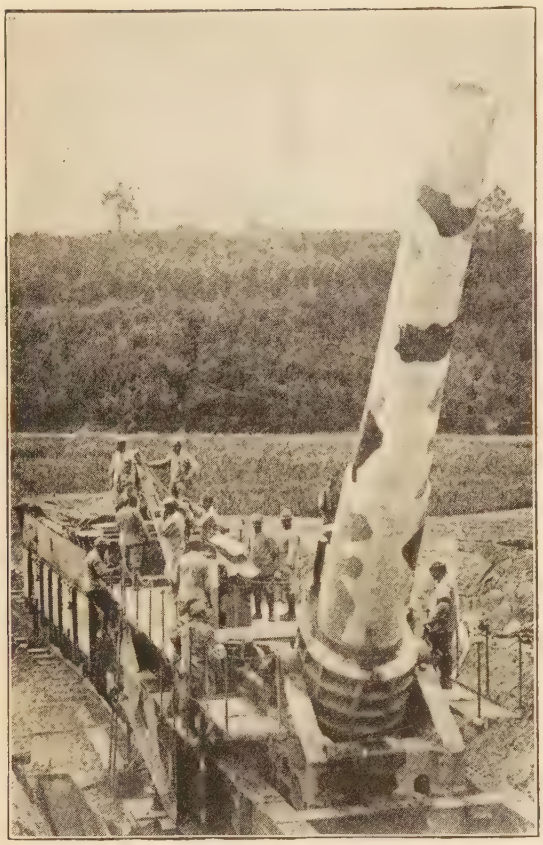
"If the Imperial German Government should not now proclaim and make effective renunciation of its present methods of submarine warfare against passenger and cargo ships, the United States Government can have no other choice than to break off completely diplomatic relations with the German government."

This shows the appearance of some of the fragments of shell found in a street of Paris.

To this Germany replied with the announcement that the German naval forces had received the following orders:

"In accordance with the general principles of visit and search and destruction of merchant vessels recognized by international law, such vessels, both within and without the area declared as a naval war zone, shall not be sunk without warning and without saving human lives, unless these vessels attempt to escape or offer resistance."

At the same time Germany suggested that now the United States should exercise her influence to make the British government observe the rules of international law, and added that if the British government did not follow the "laws of humanity" the German government would feel it was facing a new situation in which it must reserve to itself "complete liberty of decision."



Camouflaged Big Gun. Mounted on a specially constructed railroad carriage, this big French 400 m/m, gun was ready to bang away at the German forces making the drive on the Somme front. It was exceedingly well camouflaged to prevent detection by Boche aerial forces.

The British navy had not occasioned the loss of a single neutral or non-combatant life. Even in battle with German warships it had uniformly done everything in its power to rescue enemy sailors. It had bombed no open ports and sunk no merchantmen. It had most scrupulously observed the rules of visit and search, and the enemy had been given his day in the prize court. Its offense was the effective blockade of Germany at a point remote from the German coast and beyond the reach of the U-boats.

The impudence of the German reply, however, lay in making the fulfillment of her pledges to the United States depend upon the conduct of a third party who had no place in the controversy.

Matters drifted along under this arrangement until the beginning of 1917, and then, as elsewhere narrated, the crisis came and the rupture in diplomatic relations as a result of Germany's proclamation of unrestricted U-boat warfare.

That proclamation was the beginning of a new and serious chapter for the allies. The rate of destruction went up at once. In March, April, May and June of 1917 ships were sunk in such numbers that it looked as if the enemy's intentions might be realized, and the surrender of Great Britain and France forced by starvation.

The United States, entering the war on Good Friday, brought the help of her genius and industry to the problem. Devices were invented for detecting the presence of submarines and for destroying them. The depth bomb began to prove of great value. When the arming of merchantmen failed to lessen the sinking of ships materially, the convoy system was adopted. It proved the most effective method of rendering the U-boat harmless.

Gradually the U-boat was mastered. Allied ship-building efforts gained upon the ship-destroying efforts of the foe. America transported 2,000,000 soldiers to France with practically no losses. By the summer of 1918 the earlier alarm that the central empires might win the war with the submarine was dissipated. Instead it was felt that the submarine could do nothing more than delay the issue.

During the period of the submarine war the British navy had two clashes with the enemy on the high seas. Vice-Admiral Beatty, in command of a British patrolling squadron, encountered a German raiding squadron in the North Sea on January 24, 1915. There was a sharp little fight, in which the enemy battle cruiser Blucher was sunk, and two other of his big ships badly damaged. The British cruisers Lion and Tiger suffered but were able to make port under their

own steam.

The biggest naval battle of the war occurred off the coast of Denmark on May 31, 1916.

Vice-Admiral Beatty, commanding the battle cruiser squadron, discovered the enemy's high sea fleet steaming north and west in the region of Jutland. It was late in the afternoon, and the weather was hazy, but Beatty at once closed in and gave fight. It was his purpose to engage and hold the foe until the British dreadnaught fleet could arrive on the scene.

The battle raged mightily until darkness set in, and the enemy, realizing his peril, succeeded in slipping away in night and fog and reaching his own sheltered waters behind Helgoland.

The British lost three battle cruisers—the Queen Mary, Indefatigable and Invincible; three armored cruisers—the Defense, Warrior and Black Prince, and eight destroyers. The enemy admitted at the time the loss of one battleship, the Pommern, one battle cruiser, the Lutzow, four cruisers and five destroyers.

When the war ended it developed that his losses had been far heavier than he had admitted or than the British had claimed, and that from May 31, 1916, until the hour of final defeat official Germany knew that its fleet could never again run the risk of meeting the British.

In British naval history, however, no incidents will live longer or redound more loudly to the praise of Britain than the intrepid raids on the submarine bases of Zeebrugge and Ostend, on the Belgian coast. The former took place on the night of April 22-23, 1918. Vice Admiral Sir Roger Keyes directed the daring expedition that undertook to destroy the fortified mole of Zeebrugge and block the channel by which access was had to the canal. Six obsolete British cruisers took part in the enterprise—the Brilliant, Iphigenia, Sirius, Intrepid, Thetis and Vindictive. The last named won great

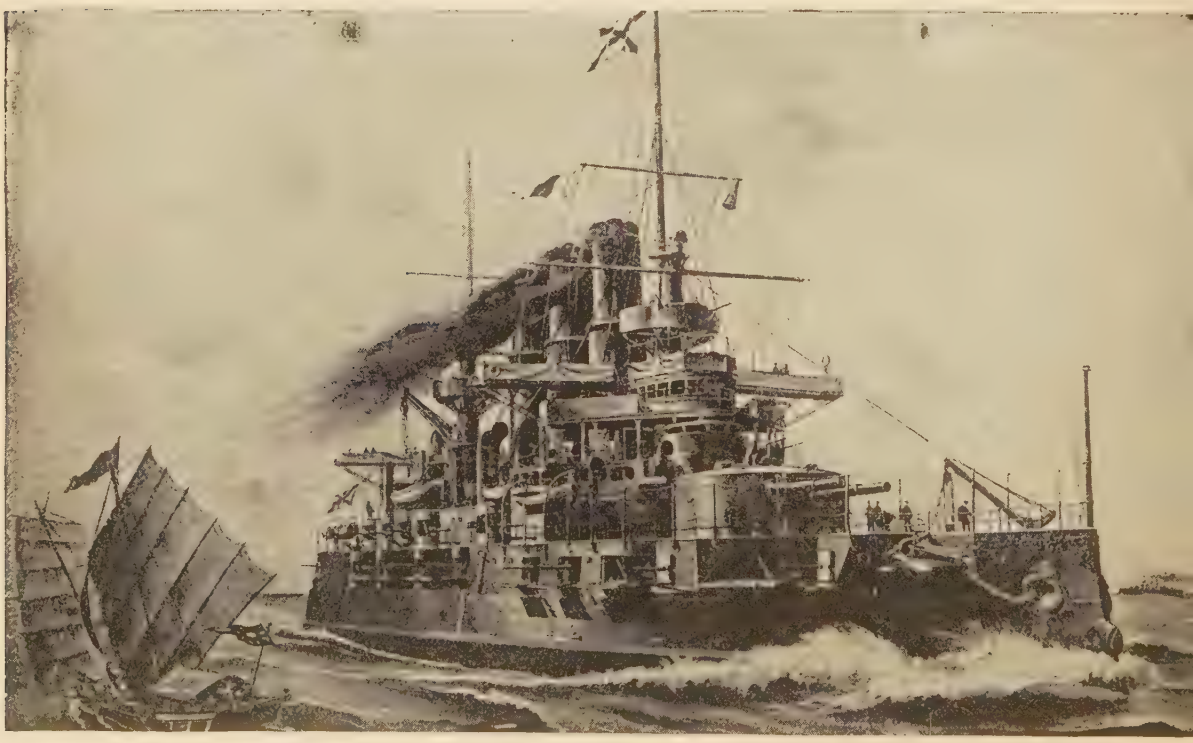
French Submersible Torpedo-boat Signalling Fleet at Biserta.

glory. She landed storming parties on the mole while being hammered with shells from the enemy shore batteries. A noble wreck she managed to reach port. A few weeks later she ventured forth again, and allowed herself to be sunk at the entrance to the harbor of Ostend.

In all the history of the world there has been no more wonderful spectacle, nor any surrender more utterly humiliating, than that which ended the long struggle upon and beneath the seas.

When in late November 1918, the pride of the German navy, great dreadnaughts, battle cruisers, armored cruisers and destroyers, steamed sullenly across the North Sea and gave themselves up to the waiting fleet of Britain with its allied squadrons of American and French warships, there ended the dream of Wilhelm Hohenzollern, the dream of a vast world empire, mighty on land and sea.

French Submarine Torpedo Boat "Lavoisier" Helped to Clear the Mediterranean.



Great Austrian Battleship "Herzog Karl" surrendered to Italy.

America's Long Patience

CHAPTER X

AMERICA NEUTRAL — BELGIUM STARVING — GERMAN PLOTS — LUSITANIA SUNK — EXCHANGE OF NOTES — RELATIONS WITH AUSTRIA BROKEN — AMERICA'S ULTIMATUM.

America was slow to discover that she lived in the world rather than in the western hemisphere alone, and that she was neighbor to Europe as well as to Mexico.

When the war began in Europe the American people looked upon it as a strange and tragic madness of monarchs and subject nations, with which they had nothing to do, and could have nothing to do, except as intermediary in an effort to make peace.

Millions of Americans were shocked and outraged by the ruthless treatment of Belgium when Germany hurled herself across the little country's frontier in a frantic effort to get at the throat of France.

Some Americans wanted the United States to protest and even to threaten a declaration of war if Germany persisted in her violation of Belgium's rights and liberty.

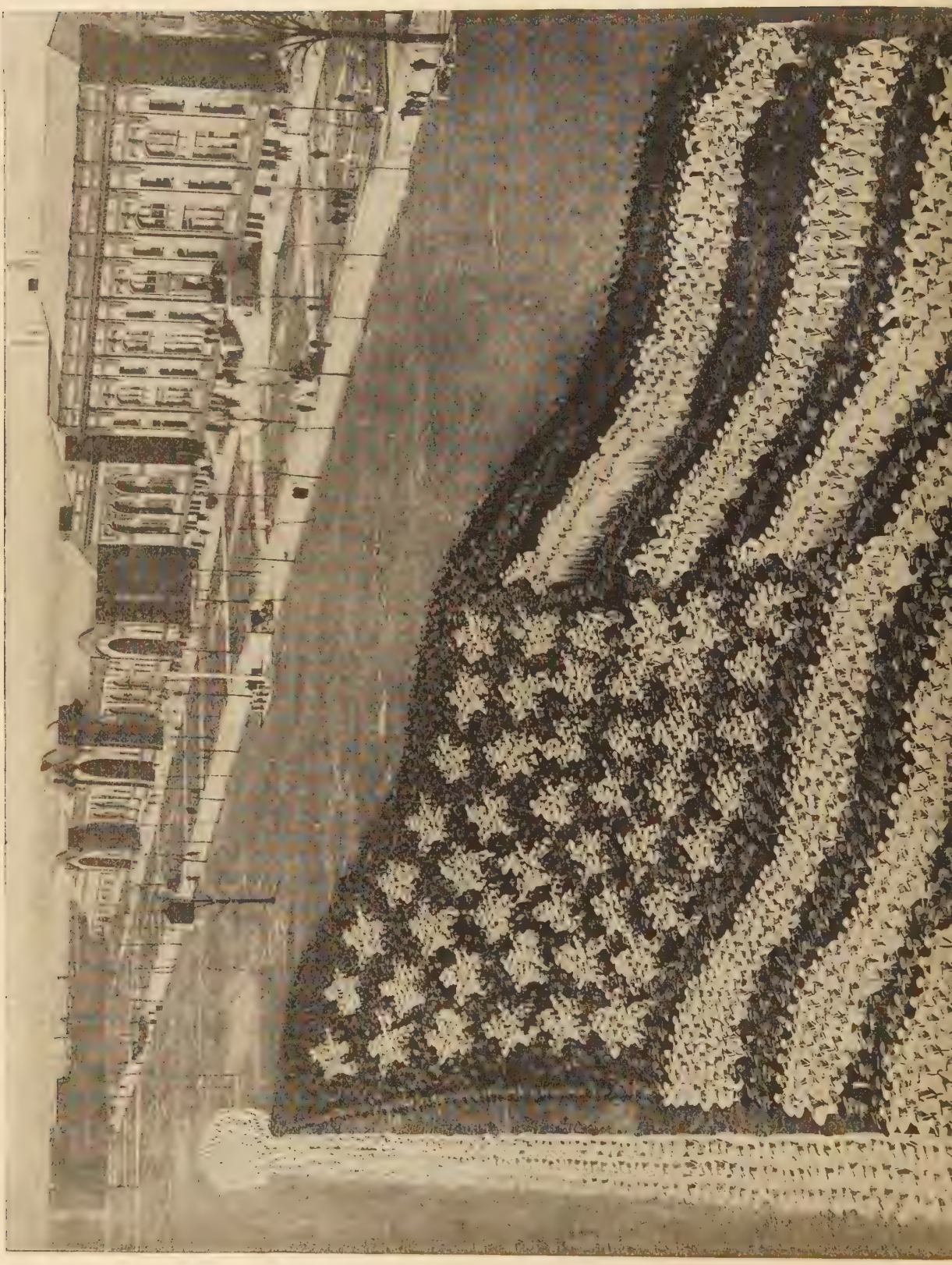
No action was taken by the American government, however, and it is probable the government faithfully reflected the sentiment of a majority of the people, at that time. There was very general sympathy for Belgium, and wide-spread indignation against Germany, but the old tradition that America had no lot or part in the politics and quarrels of Europe obtained thruout the land, and few would have been willing to go beyond sympathy and indignation.

America's sympathy was shown most practically and with little delay. All over the country funds were raised for the relief of Belgium, whose people had been reduced to misery and starvation in a brief space of time by the cruelty of the foe.

When it became apparent that the proper administration of American bounty depended upon direct American supervision, an American Commission for the Relief of Belgium was named, with Herbert Clark Hoover, an Iowa mining engineer, as chairman. Mr. Hoover proved a wonderful organizer, a man of generous heart and great executive ability. Under his leadership millions of dollars were raised for the help of King Albert's oppressed people, and under his personal direction the money was disbursed for their salvation. For two years he labored incessantly, handicapped by the frequent refusal of the German administrators of Belgium to cooperate or in any way to facilitate his work.

The ministry for Belgium was America's main means of contact with the war zone during 1914-15-16. There were other contacts, but they were all of the same sort—relief work for the suffering of Serbia, Syria, and Armenia, or ambulance driving and Red Cross service in France.

Officially America was neutral. The President issued declarations of neutrality as each new belligerent appeared in Europe. Immediately following the first outbreak of war, in August 1914, he ap-



A LIVING FLAG

10,000 Blue Jackets form the most remarkable flag in the world at the Great Lakes Naval Training Station, 30 miles from Chicago, and photographed from a plane.

(Copyright Great Lakes Recruit, 1917)

As interesting as the picture itself, is the manner in which the design was laid out in the huge drill grounds. The flag, if formed in proper proportions, would hardly be recognizable when photographed, so expert photographers worked through the law of perspective so that when viewed from the "eye of the camera" and photographed, it stood out in proper proportions. For instance there were 65 men in the star in the extreme left hand corner and only 12 in the nearest front star.

290 men were in the ball, 560 in the pole, 450 in the top stripe and 300 in the lower one.

The flag itself, was 293 feet long and 428 feet in width.

The star field measured 143 feet at the top, 66 feet at the bottom.

One of the features of this extraordinary formation is the fact that in the respective stars there were men from nearly every state in the union.

pealed to the American people to maintain a strict neutrality in word and act.

The American people made a loyal effort to acquiesce in the President's request, and a very large proportion of them succeeded admirably; but the American of German birth or descent proved in many instances an exception to the loyalty of the majority.

The United States did not realize at first that its citizens of German blood were being made the objects of continued incitement by German agents in America; but this was true. Had they been left to themselves there is little likelihood that any serious trouble would have developed. But men on the pay-roll of the German Ambassador, Count Bernstorff, and in the employ of Dr. Dumba, the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador, maintained a ceaseless propaganda thru channels and agencies of varied kinds by which they played upon the racial sentiment, the pride and even the fear of German-Americans. Secret organizations were formed; oaths of loyalty to the kaiser were taken; reservists were drilled.

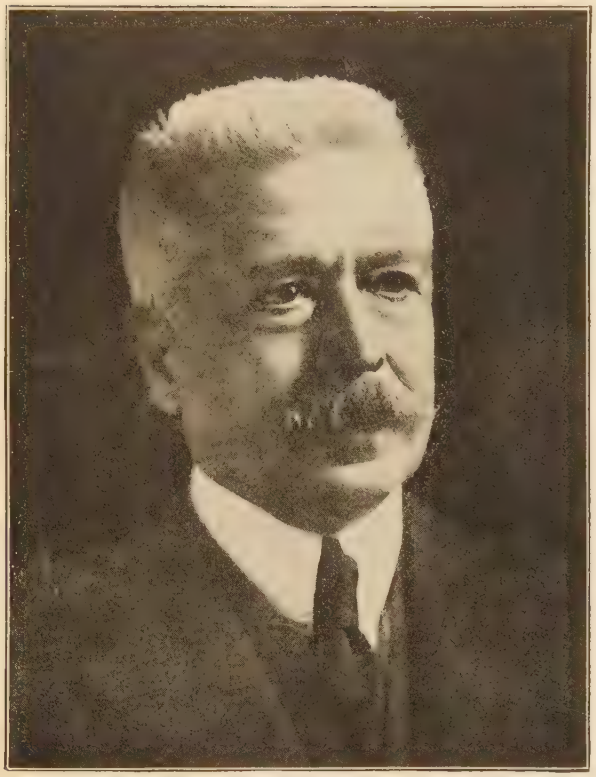
Agents were hired to go into American industries and provoke and persuade the workers to strike. These efforts were directed chiefly to the demoralization of the munition factories, or other concerns producing goods that were of value to the enemies of Germany.

French Advancing Behind a Barrage Fire.

At the same time agents lobbied in Congress, while subsidized or misguided newspapers thruout the country supported their efforts to obtain an embargo on the export of munitions, and even on the export of foodstuffs.

The propaganda of the Bernstorff-Dumba organization attempted to make the American people believe it was unjust and, indeed, unlawful to sell guns and shells and food to the enemies of Germany

The Italian Royal Family.



Premier Orlando directed Italy's War Committee.

when Germany was unable to buy them. This was, of course, ridiculous. The manufacturers and producers of the United States had a right to sell to anybody who could reach their market and pay their price. It was not their fault that Germany could not come to New York or Boston or New Orleans and trade. The obstacle in the way was not American prejudice so much as the British fleet—and that was an obstacle that Germany would have had to remove for herself.

The refusal of Congress to follow the promptings of the kaiser thru Count Bernstorff and his agents, provoked these gentlemen to more desperate efforts.

Explosions became frequent in munition factories; bridges were blown up; trains were wrecked.

But all of these things, altho vexing the American people, did not greatly stir them. Many of them simply refused to believe that they were anything more than accidents, or—at worst—the work of irresponsible fanatics.

Then came a day—May 1, 1915—when there appeared in the New York newspapers an advertisement. It read as follows:

NOTICE!

TRAVELLERS intending to embark on the Atlantic voyage are reminded that a state of war exists between Germany and her allies and Great Britain and her allies; that the zone of war includes the waters adjacent to the British Isles; that, in accordance with formal notice given by the Imperial German Government, vessels flying the flag of Great Britain, or of any of her allies, are liable to destruction in those waters and that travellers sailing in the war zone on ships of Great Britain or her allies do so at their own risk.

IMPERIAL GERMAN EMBASSY

Washington, D. C., April 22, 1915.

Not many people saw this extraordinary advertisement, in which a foreign government ignored the government of the United States, and talked directly to the American people in threatening words and tone. Those who did see it paid little attention to it.

But there were individuals to whom came mysterious warnings to avoid sailing from New York on the Lusitania, that was due to steam out of the harbor the day after the appearance of the German Embassy's menacing notice. Some of them heeded these warnings. Others laughed at them. The idea that Germany would sink a great passenger liner, with American citizens on board, seemed absurd.

It was true that German submarines had been very active and had occasioned considerable loss, but, aside from the sinking of several allied battleships—legiti-

mate prey—there had been no appallingly dramatic happenings such as were soon to come.

In February the German government had proclaimed a submarine zone around the British Isles, and announced the establishment of a U-boat blockade of Great Britain.

President Wilson followed the enemy proclamation with a note addressed to Berlin, pointing out the perils of Germany's plan of blockade and its threat to the freedom and security of neutrals. This note closed with an emphatic declaration that if Germany violated the rights of the United States upon the high seas, the United States would hold her to a "strict accountability."

It was with this phrase still clearly in mind that American citizens went on board the Lusitania, and sailed from New York, in spite of insulting advertisements and mysterious warnings.

The Lusitania carried in her hold some small arms ammunition—rifle cartridges. She had no dangerous cargo. In every respect her manifest complied with the law. She was a British passenger liner. She had no troops on board, and altho on the naval reserve list, she had not yet been called for active service.

At five minutes after two on the afternoon of May 7, 1915, the Lusitania was slipping along rather slowly off the Old Head of Kinsale, Ireland. Suddenly the U-boat 39 appeared at her side, and discharged two torpedoes into the utterly helpless vessel.

No warning was given, no opportunity for the escape of the women and children, and of course no effort was made to visit and search her, as the law of the sea requires.

The great liner sank quickly, carrying to their death 1,154 persons, many of whom were women and children. A score of little babies died pitifully.

Among the 1,154 dead were 102 Americans.

Major Baracca, Italian Ace.

The news of this tragic happening shocked and horrified the world. It stunned Americans. It seemed impossible to believe it true. After the first incredulous amazement there came a surge of anger, and had President Wilson declared war on Germany the day after the sinking of the Lusitania he would have had a large part of the nation with him for vengeance on the cruel and cowardly foe.

But President Wilson did not declare war. Instead he made a speech at Philadelphia in which he said:—"There is such a thing as a man being too proud to fight; there is such a thing as a nation being so right that it does not need to convince others by force that it is right."

The phrase "too proud to fight" was the most unfortunate the President had

Types of soldiers and laborers on the Italian front at time of Austrian invasion.

ever used. Torn from its context it was carried around the world, and wherever it was repeated there came back to America the laughter of mockery and the scorn of men.

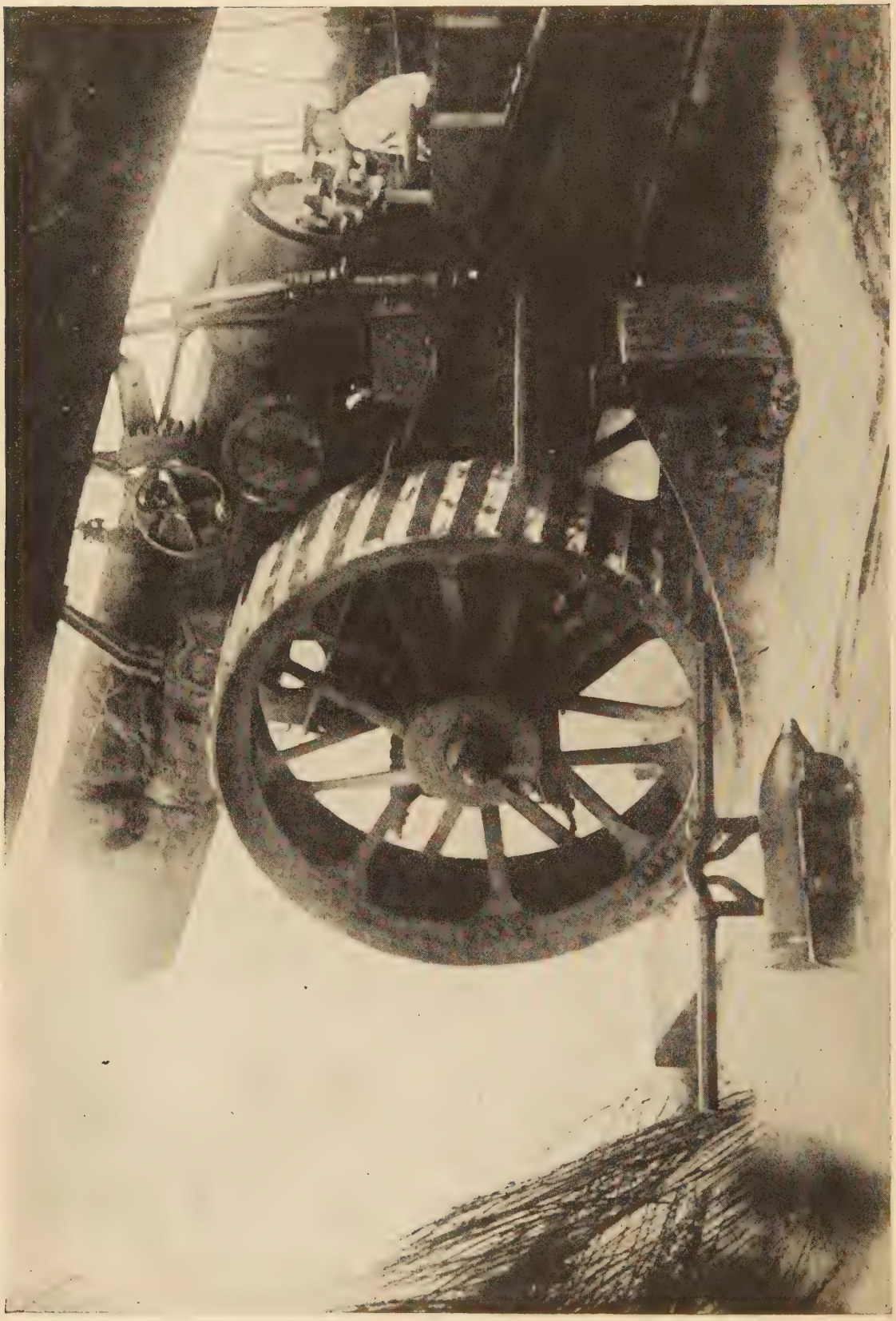
President Wilson did not know Germany then. No man knew her as all came to know her later. Had he known her he would never have used the second phrase, about a nation being "so right that it does not need to convince others by force." President Wilson learned that there is only one way to convince the Prussian mind of anything, and that is by force. You might be as right as God Himself, and it would make no impression whatever upon the type of mind that burned Louvain, sank the Lusitania, murdered Nurse Cavell and wantonly converted Northern France into a wilderness of death and desolation.

President Wilson attempted to demonstrate the righteousness of the United States to the German intelligence. He went about his task earnestly, ably and patiently. He wrote two notes to Germany, in the first demanding reparation, and, in the second, emphasizing the demand, and insisting that Germany must not sink ships without warning, and must not turn passengers adrift in open boats at a distance remote from shore.

After these several interchanges of notes, on September 1 Count Bernstorff announced that Germany would sink no more passenger liners without warning, and would otherwise comply with the conditions deemed by the United States government to be essential in the interests of humanity, international law and neutral rights.

Public indignation subsided a little. It was hoped that the President's conciliatory plan would prove effective.

Italians had many anti-aircraft guns mounted on tractors. Italian anti-craft guns and light artillery pieces were mounted and hauled into position by tractors.



Type of heavy Italian gun on the Piave River kept the Austrian forces from concentrating at any one point.

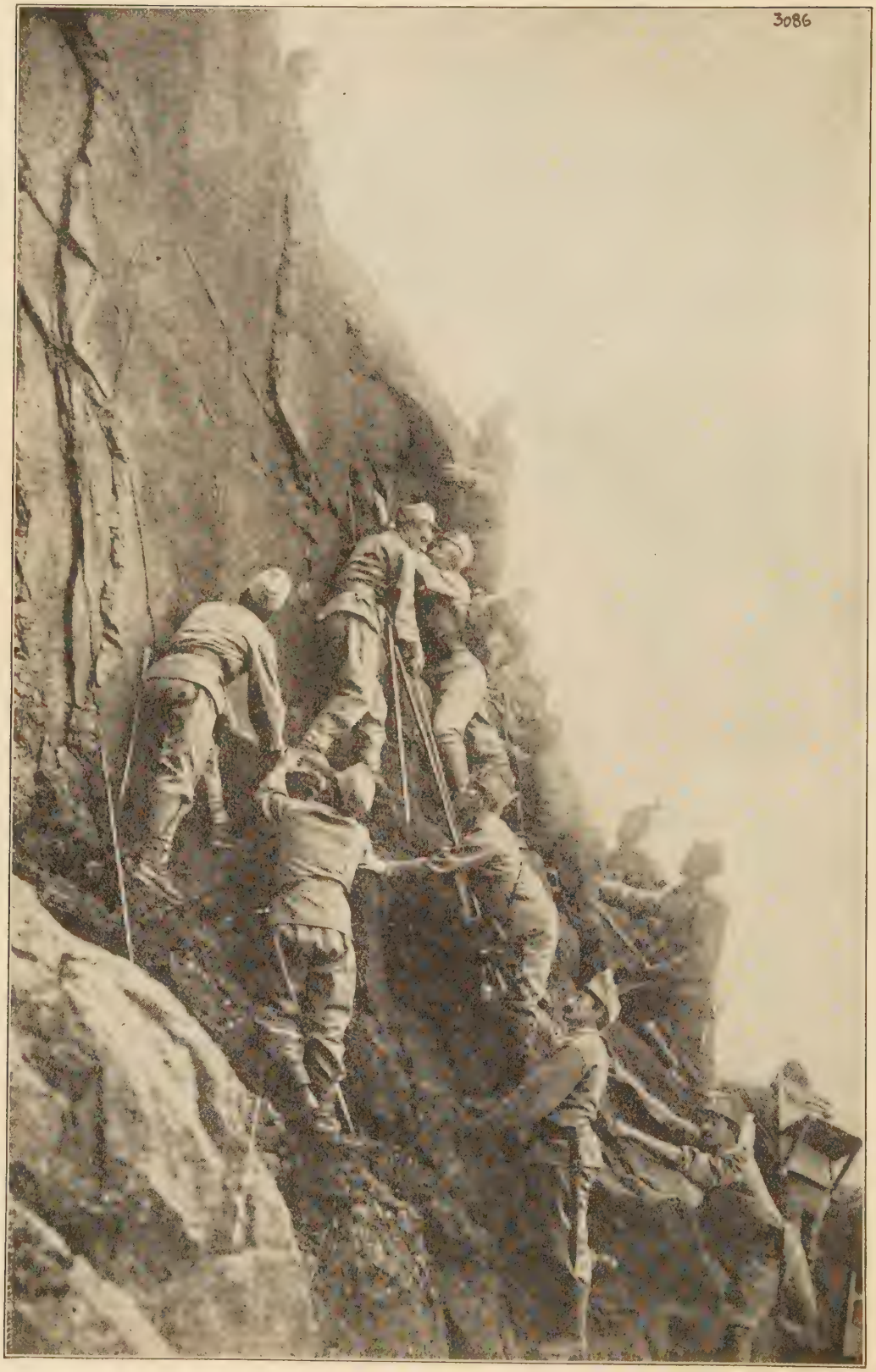
There were other provocations, however, that disturbed the peace of mind and good temper of the average American citizen. The activities of certain agents, whose connections had been traced back to the vicinity of the Austrian embassy, made many people feel that America was much too tolerant of some of the representatives of the central empires. This impression became so strong that the State Department at Washington, early in September 1915, requested the Austrian government to recall Dr. Dumba. This did not mean severing diplomatic relations, but merely a protest against the conduct of the particular individual then acting for the dual monarchy at Washington.

Italian Bersaglieri cycle regiment on their way to the Austrian frontier.

The Austrian government did as it was requested, and Dumba departed. But the departure of the Hapsburg ambassador made small difference as long as the shrewd, unscrupulous little agent of the Hohenzollern autocrat was still free to go as he pleased in Washington. Dr. Dumba had never been more than a tool for Count Bernstorff. Dumba was a business man and Bernstorff an aristocrat, hence Dumba was content to be a valet in conspiracy for his master, the arch-conspirator.

However the expulsion of Dumba—for such it was in all but technicality—led to further discoveries and disclosures. As a consequence in December the two German agents chiefly responsible for outrages and plots in America—Boy-Ed and Von Papen—were induced to follow the former Austrian ambassador.

It was on September 1 that Count Bernstorff gave the sacred word of Germany that she would not sink another



Austro-Italian Fighting in the Alps.

passenger ship without full warning. A little less than six months later, on March 25, 1916, the channel packet Sussex was torpedoed off the French coast. She sank with loss of life among crew and passengers. Several Americans were on board, but happily escaped death. The Sussex was wantonly sunk. No warning was given. No effort was made to save life. It was another instance of cold-blooded murder.

America was on the verge of breaking diplomatic relations with Germany. The anger of the people was intense. "Strict accountability" had been the words a year before, and Germany had acted as tho they meant nothing of which she need be afraid.

President Wilson sent another note, and made a speech to Congress emphasizing the serious and perilous nature of the situation. In his note he told Germany that should she repeat this crime diplomatic relations would be severed.

In a few weeks Germany answered with new promises of good behavior, and once again the United States swallowed its wrath and gave the Germans a chance.

Thru the remainder of 1916 Germany avoided further provocation. President Wilson was re-elected in November on a platform summed up in the phrase "He kept us out of war." America, evidently, was happy to be kept out of war in spite of all the injury that had been done her, and the insults that had been heaped upon her. Her anger had flamed up occasionally, but there was no steady heat. There was certainly no heat intense enough to repudiate the pacifist slogan of the Democratic nominee.

This was in part due to the fact that the people of the great middle-west and far west were not yet aware of the real perils to the nation involved in temporizing with a power like Germany. Moreover the offenses committed by U-boats did not appeal with the same force to them as to the people of the eastern and

Military Men of Southern Europe, Roumanian, Servian and Greek.

sea-board states. They were inclined to think that Americans should keep off the sea when the sea was dangerous, and not risk the provocation of international dispute and war merely to gratify their desire for travel.

Following the victorious campaign of the President on his peace platform, there came a rather dramatic opportunity to act for a moment as a potential peacemaker.

Early in December Berlin proposed that the warring countries engage in an effort to negotiate peace. Germany had just completed the conquest of Roumania by occupying Bucharest six days before. Russia was hors de combat. The hour seemed opportune to the Prussian leaders.

President Wilson also thought the hour opportune for a definite effort to end the war. He addressed an identical note to all the belligerents requesting

Italian Troops After Rout of Teutonic Forces in Northeastern Italy. Having wounds dressed.

them to make a clear statement of the terms upon which they were willing to consider peace. He based this request upon the ground of America's interest in the restoration of peace. He argued that the prolongation of the war was endangering the security of the United States.

The President's note was not favorably received in the lands opposed to the central empires. Nevertheless they replied with definite statements of their war aims. From all of them came a declaration that they would enter into no discussion of peace with Germany until she had defined her terms. The British prime minister insisted that there could be no peace without assurance of reparation, restoration and security. Finally in a combined reply, just as the year ended, the allies emphatically rejected the German proposals for a conference, and reminded the world that Germany looked upon sacred promises as "scraps of paper," and approved the principle that "necessity knows no law."

However opinions may differ as to the wisdom of the course taken by President Wilson, it can never be questioned that he exerted himself to the extreme limit of patience and tact in the effort to keep America neutral and peaceful, and to encourage a spirit of conciliation among the belligerent nations over-seas.

More ardent spirits would have entered the war when Belgium was invaded, the Lusitania sunk or the Sussex torpedoed—excuses were abundant. But President Wilson was not seeking excuses to fight; he was trying to avoid fighting. If America had to fight he wanted it to be the result of a situation that left no possible alternative; he wanted every American citizen, no matter what his ancestry or nativity, to feel that America was entering the war only after she had exhausted every means in her power to remain neutral and because national safety and self-respect could not be preserved in any other way.

This photograph, one of the most remarkable made in the national army camps, shows a number of the soldiers in the trenches wearing their gas masks, facing a gas attack of the "enemy."

When his attempt failed to obtain from the belligerent nations an agreement to enter upon peace negotiation—failed because of Germany's refusal to commit herself to any definite proposals—he realized that he had gone as far as it was possible to go. He had given the central empires chance after chance, and they had proved shifty, untrustworthy and indifferent to honorable appeal. Now, altho the proposal for negotiation came from them, and, at his request, had been met by the allies with a clear forthsetting of their war aims, the central powers declined to go on record as to their basis of bargaining. President Wilson was satisfied at last that if Germany gave any new provocation to the United States there could be only one answer to it. Reason, persuasion and appeal were no longer of any avail. Force—force to the utmost—was the only way left.

Gregory Rasputin, the famous Russian monk, who was the power behind the Russian throne, surrounded by a group of admirers

The United States Draws The Sword

CHAPTER XI

GERMANY RENEWS SUBMARINE WARFARE — NO HOPE FOR FRIENDLY RELATIONS — GERMAN-MEXICO PLOTS — UNITED STATES DECLARES WAR ON GERMANY — GEN. PERSHING ARRIVES IN FRANCE — FIRST UNITED STATES EXPEDITIONARY FORCES REACH FRANCE — FRENCH AND AMERICANS SHOW CORDIAL RELATIONS.

It was on the last day of January in the year 1917 that Germany announced to the world that she would wage war on the sea with unrestricted frightfulness. Thus she repudiated her pledges to the United States and intimated that she would torpedo without warning every ship that dared to sail the seas. At this time she had lost faith in the efficacy of her wonderful military machine and believed that the huge fleet of submarines she had been building secretly would enable her to starve Britain into submission within three months. She argued that she could afford to earn the hostility of all civilization so long as she won the war.

The gauntlet thrown down by the Teuton warlords was taken up quickly, if reluctantly, by the great North American republic. On February 26th, President Wilson went before Congress and asked that diplomatic relations with Germany be severed. He knew, then, that the step he was taking was irretraceable and that only a miracle could keep the United States from being involved in the fearful European struggle. His last hope, which was that the United States would be able to maintain armed neutrality, soon vanished. Although the President authorized the arming of American merchant ships, the desperate German government proceeded to carry out its threat and soon a whole series of attacks on the trading ships of the world, involving the loss of American property and of American lives. And so on April 2nd, the President went before Congress again and requested that a state of war with Germany be declared. In this utterance Mr. Wilson took pains to say that "We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind."

Congress did not hesitate as to its course. The revelation that the German Foreign Minister, while his country was at peace with the United States, had urged the German Minister in Mexico to arrange for a Mexican invasion of the United States, promising to Mexico a slice of American territory, and that he also had sought to improve this plan by seeking an anti-American alliance between Japan and Mexico, aroused the ire of the whole country, and made the people ready to plunge into the Old World struggle. The Senate passed the war declaration on April 4 by a vote of 82 to 6 and the House of Representatives passed it on April 6 by 373 to 50. At the same time the President was directed to employ the entire naval and military resources of the country to bring the struggle to a successful termination.

President Wilson immediately after signing the war resolution issued a proclamation concerning the conduct and treatment of alien enemies.

All of these momentous acts that swept America from her traditional isolation into the maelstrom of European strife took place amid profound emotion on the part of those participating, and breathless interest on the part of the people.

Beyond a display of flags—flags of all the nations at war against the central empires—there was no great public demonstration. Millions of Americans rejoiced that the bonds of neutrality were broken, that the obligation to silence and inactivity was removed, and that—before it was too late—America had taken her place

Commandant Bachkarova, the leader of the Women's Death Battalion.

beside the great democracies of the world for the final fight against autocracy and the legions of oppression.

In 1776 America had raised the flag of freedom and the right of self-determination and self-government. She had been true to these ideals that then began to revolutionize the world. She had fought to free the slave. She had given Cuba liberty. She had redeemed the Philippines from the bondage of Spain. By all that she had held precious, by all that made her history glorious she had a right to stand with France and England and Italy and little Belgium against the Hun. Her duty lay upon the frontiers of freedom, and it was with a glad pride, counting well the cost, that America unsheathed her sword, and sent across the seas to the older allies a message of cheer and comradeship.

Generally speaking, the year 1916 had been most unfortunate for the Germanic combination from a military standpoint. Only on the Roumanian front had any consolation been offered to the high German command. Russia, although she exhausted herself terribly by her efforts, had carried off the honors on the east, the Italians had had a good year on the southwest and in the west the Verdun offensive had failed and the British and French counter-offensive at the Somme had made dangerous headway. Early in 1917, therefore, Germany was dreading events on all fronts, particularly on the east and the west. Her agents in the east were reporting that a revolution might occur in Russia but the hopes raised by her secret agents in other quarters had been sadly disappointed and she could not be sure that the downfall of the Czaristic regime, with its pro-German element, would be a help to Germany. For that reason she decided to order a retreat from the great Arras-Soissons salient, to dodge the attacks the allies were preparing and to depend on her submarines to gain victory at sea while her armies evaded decisive conflict on land.

That was the general situation in the world conflict when the United States became a belligerent on April 6, 1917. Three days later the British forces gained a brilliant success at Vimy Ridge, and they and the French scored time and again during the remainder of the 1917 fighting season but they had not sufficient strength of themselves to overwhelm the enemy and the United States was in no position to render appreciable help except at sea. American dreadnoughts and destroyers were not long in finding their way to the North Sea and there, and around the shores of Ireland, they did splendid work in curbing the piratical underwater craft of the common enemy. The closest possible co-operation prevailed between the British and American admirals, and together they baffled the supreme effort of the enemy to accomplish the defeat that the enemy's armies had failed to obtain.

In the meantime the United States set

Family of Czar of Russia.

to work determinedly to improvise an army and to build transports in the hope of aiding the allied nations to gain victory in the year 1918. As the months passed by and the destruction of Russia's military efficiency by the revolution became clear, it was seen that the United States would have to prepare to take a much larger part in the struggle than had been anticipated. Twenty-two days after the declaration of war, Congress passed conscription or the law providing for the selective draft. In a few weeks, the regular army, by volunteering, was brought up to a strength of 287,000 and the National Guard up to 625,000. On June 5, ten million young Americans registered and became available, when required, for the purposes of the national cause. Two weeks later, two million men, by drawing lots, were chosen for military service. This number was greatly increased in 1918. Among those enlisting were 300,000 colored men, many of whom won decorations on the field of battle.

By the end of June General Pershing, who was appointed to the chief command of the United States expeditionary forces, and the first contingent of American troops were safe on the soil of France. Training camps for American troops soon were established midway between Paris and the Swiss frontier. Within six months of the declaration of war it became known that American troops were fighting in the trenches on the Nancy front on the banks of the Rhine-Marne front. A few weeks later, in November, the Germans, in their eagerness to gain precise information, made an elaborate raid on the American front in which they killed three, wounded eleven and captured eleven men from the United States. Germany did not realize then that not a year would pass before the allies, with the material aid of a huge American army, would have beaten her to her knees.

The flag of America had been on the front since the first month of the war—

A. F. Kerensky, Russia's youthful Minister of War, formerly one of the greatest of the nation's heroes.

since August 1914. It had been there as a promise and prediction that America would follow it. The story of where that flag came from and what befell it was told in Current History by the Rev. S. N. Watson. And this, in part, is the story:

Under the burning skies of August, 1914, there was seen in the streets of Paris a procession of soldiers of the Foreign Legion. Over the heads of one of the groups floated the Stars and Stripes. The soldiers who formed this American group belonged to the Second Regiment of the Foreign Legion, and their devotion to France and to liberty had impelled them to enlist. Their flag was the first American flag on the French front. Some one had offered them this flag here in Paris, where the group was formed. They took it with them to Rouen, where they had their first camp. When Rouen was threatened by the enemy this regiment was sent to Toulouse. Returning from Toulouse to Paris for active service at

Russians slaughtered in the streets by the Bolsheviki forces. The machine gun is mounted on the roof of the building. Mother in foreground protecting child.

Russian Army in Cosmopolitan Salonica. This shows a few of the troops of the large Russian army that landed in Salonica just as the barge tied up to the dock.

Foreign Minister Leon Trotsky, of the Bolshevik Russian Government.

the front, its members draped the starry banner over the side of the cattle car in which they were riding; and, arrived at the front, they always found a place of honor for their idolized flag. When they slept at night, or when they went "over the top" in an assault, one man or another always carried it with him.

At last came the moment when the United States took its place in the war. The little group of American volunteers was dispersed. Three were dead, one was grievously wounded, one was a prisoner in Germany. Of one of those now dead it is reported that he lay three days in his bed without saying a word and that suddenly he seized the flag and waved it, crying "I'm an American!" and expired.

One of the survivors sent the flag to the rector of the American Church in Paris, asking him to offer it to the French Government. The rector willingly accepted the task. He wrote to the Minister of War, telling of the request of his compatriots, and received this cordial reply:

"I accept with pleasure, in the name of the French Army, this glorious emblem, for which General Niox, Governor of the Invalides, has reserved a beautiful place in the Hall of Honor of the Musée de l'Armée. This flag will thus remain a striking witness of the devotion to France displayed by the American volunteers who, from the beginning of the war, came to fight in the ranks of our army for right and civilization."

General Pershing was present on the occasion when the flag was presented to France. It was on July 4, 1917, in the Court of Honor of the Hotel des Invalides, Paris. The French president was there, and the minister of war and Marshal Joffre. In making the presentation the rector of the American church in Paris said:

Gen. Diaz, Italian Victor, invited to visit America.

"What a prophet this flag has been, the first American flag that has floated over the heads of those who were fighting on the soil of France for the ideals which the banner represents, and which are the life and soul of France! It was not permitted to our gallant boys of the Foreign Legion to carry their flag openly, like the colors of a commander when he leads his soldiers to the charge, but they carried it just the same; one after the other, they carried this flag wrapped about their bodies as a belt—a life-preserver for the soul; one after the other, they were wounded—some were killed—and it was in this way that the American flag received its first baptism of blood in this conflict where now it has its recognized place.

"This flag has been the prophet of what has come to pass, now that the great Republic beyond the sea is physically taking the place which it has always held in spirit. We are rendering a service to the comrades who died for France when we ask you to accept this emblem for which they gave their lives. It is also an inspiration to the living to be worthy of those pioneers who preceded them on the road that leads to eternal liberty and the redemption of justice."

"Battalion of Death" Made Up of Russian Women.

So the flag was placed among the treasured things of France in the heart of Paris, where it remains to this day. And General Pershing, with his staff about him, stood before the tomb of America's heroic friend and said:—

"Lafayette, we are here!"

W. R. P.

The Decisive Campaign in the Year 1918

CHAPTER XII

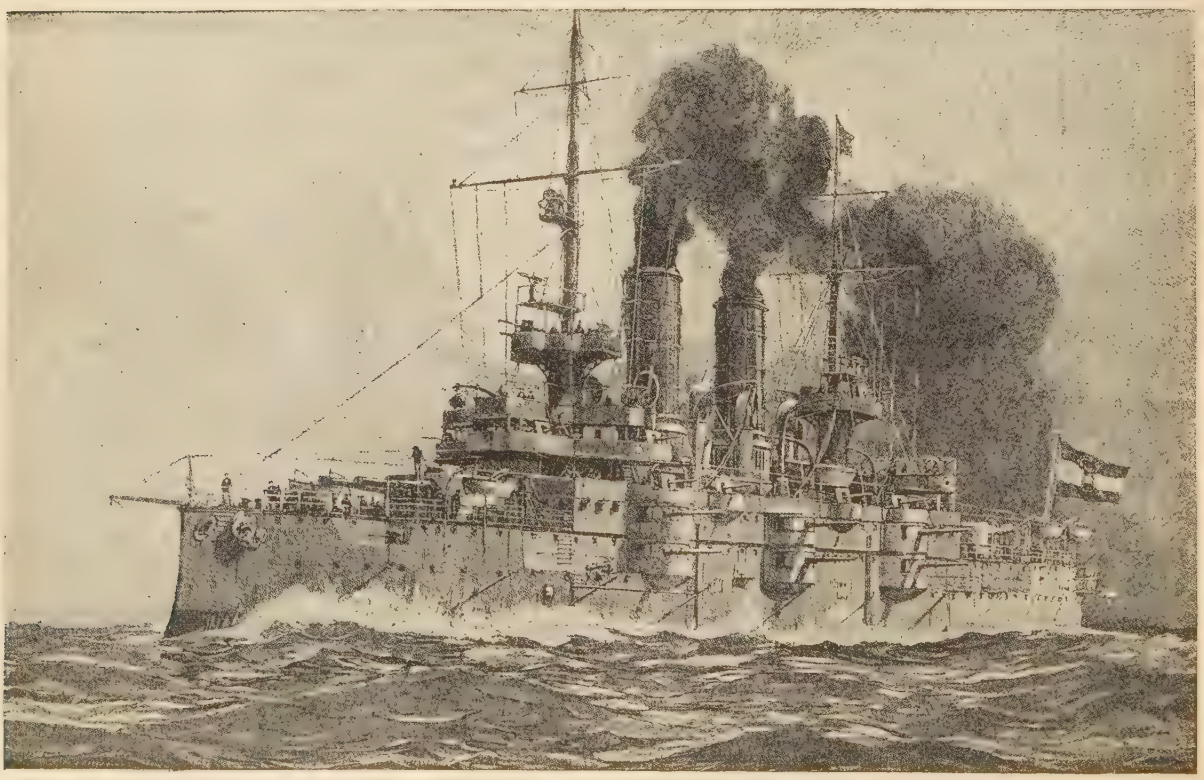
GERMAN REVERSES AND GAINS — UNITED STATES SPEEDS UP — GERMAN GIGANTIC ATTEMPT AT CHANNEL PORTS — ALLIES UNITED UNDER FOCH — FOCH'S STRATEGY WINS GERMAN RETREAT — ENORMOUS ALLIED GAINS — GERMANY ADMITS DEFEAT — ARMISTICE SIGNED.

To understand how Victory came to the allied and associated powers in 1918 it is necessary that we shall see the main features of the war in the preceding years. In 1914 the Germans tried for victory in the west and failed. In 1915 the Germans tried for victory in the east and failed again. In 1916 the Germans made their main efforts on the Italian and French fronts but their attacks broke down and allied offensives at the Somme, on the west, in Galicia on the east and along the Isonzo on the southwest made appreciable headway in spite of the most desperate Teutonic resistance. The 1914 and 1915 offensives of the Germans, while they fell short of complete success, carried the battle-fronts from one to three hundred miles away from the German border on the west and the east and for several years kept the devastation of war out of the fatherland. Thus the defence of Germany was maintained at a safe distance from the towns and cities of Germany which actually suffered less damage than was experienced by those of the various allied countries on the continent which were victorious in the great struggle. Just so soon as the allies demonstrated their ability to sweep over the fair country of the Germanic peoples, the white flag went up and the enemy signified that he would submit to any terms the allies saw fit to impose.

The year 1916 was the first one in which the honors did not go to the Germans. In the two years next preceding, the Germans carried on extremely vigorous offensives, both of which came to within an inch of complete victory. But in 1916 the only consolation Germany could get out of the campaign was that she improved matters near its close by concentrating all her reserve forces against Roumania and overrunning the larger part of that country. Nevertheless, she averted a disaster on the east in that year only by employing many hundreds of thousands of German troops on that front which were urgently needed elsewhere. Germany realized that the armies of Austria-Hungary were in an exhausted condition at mid-summer in 1917, and that but for the assistance given by Germany the weary dual empire would have been overwhelmed, carrying down to ruin with her Bulgaria and Turkey, and ultimately Germany, herself. As we saw in Chapter XI, it was the obvious inability of her armies under existing conditions to wage victorious offensives on either of the main fronts that nerved Germany to resort to unrestricted frightfulness on the sea and incur the hostility of the United States.

Nineteen-seventeen was a peculiar year in the war. It opened under the most favorable circumstances the allies had enjoyed up to that time, yet it was a year of terrible disappointment of the most unexpected sort. The setback experienced was not foreseen by Lloyd George in January when he said "We are on the verge of the greatest liberation the world has seen since the French revolution." Nor did the enemy's submarine venture accomplish its purpose. Thanks to the effective work of the allied navies, the conservation of food in America and the speeding-up of shipbuilding programs,

Russian Armored Cruiser "Ruric."



Austrian Coast Defense Battleship "Hapsburg" at Sea, Surrendered to Italy.

along with the rejection of non-essential cargoes, the enemy's plan to starve Britain and shut off military supplies destined for France, was a miserable failure. The year also saw the great North American republic, the United States, and plucky little Greece under Venizelos, enlist with the forces of civilization. The upset to the calculations of both the Huns and the civilized nations was provided by the revolution in March which swept away Czarism and crippled still further the military efficiency of Russia which already had suffered from the treachery of Germans in high places at the court of St. Petersburg. The impotency of the Russian armies from an offensive viewpoint enabled the Germans and Austrians to move large numbers of troops from the east to the western and southwestern fronts. Thus reinforced, the enemy countered effectively when British troops under General Byng broke through the German front with tanks near Cambrai and almost simultaneously the enemy inflicted a disastrous defeat on the Italian armies on the Isonzo, capturing no less than 300,000 men and 3,000 guns, representing one-half of the artillery and one-fourth of the personnel of the Italian field armies.

At the opening of the year 1918 the anxiety of the allied nations was in marked contrast with the jubilant spirit of the German warlords. The enemy's highest command was convinced that it would not be possible for the United States to develop an army large and efficient enough to be any considerable factor in the year's campaign and it was equally certain that the armies of France and Britain, which had had to send help to Italy during the previous Fall, would be unable to prevent the piercing of the allied battle-front by new methods and the defeat in detail of the separated allied armies.

Provisional government troops guarding the central telephone station in Petrograd from the Bolsheviki

Von Hindenburg, the German gener-

alissimo, openly boasted that he would be in Paris in April. His chief lieutenant, Ludendorff, declared that nothing could rob Germany of victory. The Kaiser Wilhelm, himself, became so infected by the enthusiasm of his military advisers that he permitted the attack that was being prepared to be referred to as "The Kaiser's Offensive." Instead of pussy-footing for peace as he had been doing throughout 1917 he flaunted his political advisers, vetoed the no-indemnity-no-annexation policy of the Reichstag and imposed an oppressive peace on Russia and Roumania, by treaties signed at Brest-Litovsk and Bucharest in February and March.

These Russian soldiers were made of the right stuff and when called upon to fight to down the enemies of democracy, willingly took up arms and fought a courageous battle.

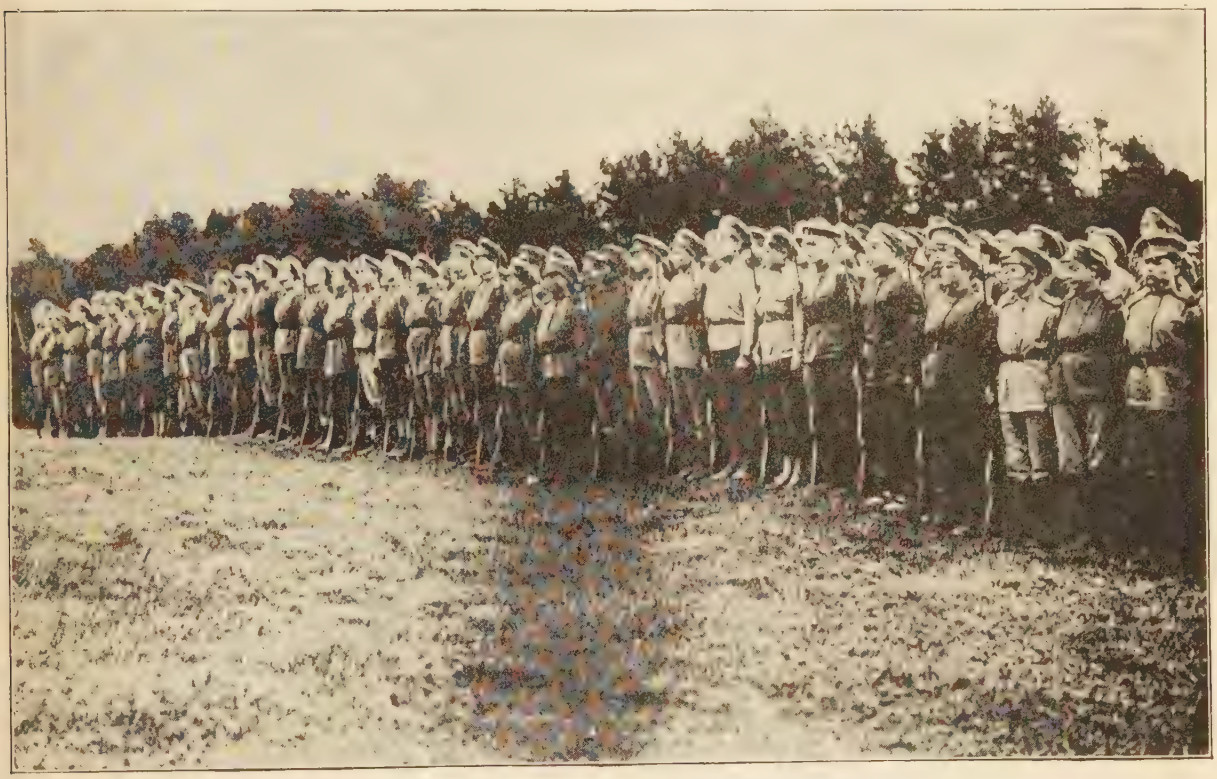
By the spring of 1918 the German armies in France and Belgium were at least half a million stronger than they were a year earlier while those of the allies, actually fit for the front, were little if any more numerous. This accession of strength by the enemy gave him a numerical superiority in March of but little more than one hundred thousand men, but he knew that his advantage in unity of command, standardization of organization and the ability to concentrate reserves where they could be of the most value, which the allies did not possess, was worth several hundred thousand men. He also knew that more troops were hurrying westward and by the middle of May would bring his numerical superiority in troops actually available for the firing line up to five hundred thousand. Consequently, he had little doubt of his ability to destroy the allied armies before the military power of the United States could come into play. So great was his confidence that he figured that he could afford to take chances.

Perhaps the best plan open to the enemy was to concentrate against the French. The morale of France was

shakier and the army of France was more exhausted than were those of Britain. In April and May of 1917 the political situation in France caused the allies concern owing to the war-weariness of the people. It was possible, therefore, that even though the French army were not destroyed by a smashing German attack, the morale of the nation would not bear the tremendous increase in casualties involved in the French bearing the brunt of the German attack.

against the British and only reluctantly did he yield to Petain's request, which was backed up by the Supreme Allied War Council which had been formed to tide the allies over the supreme crisis of the war.

The plan that Hindenburg actually did put into operation was to attack the British on the 50-mile front extending from La Fere on the Oise river to the region of Arras on the Scarpe river. The enemy's generalissimo knew that the



A striking glimpse of Russia's army of women, 2,500 in number, drilling behind the trenches at the central western front.

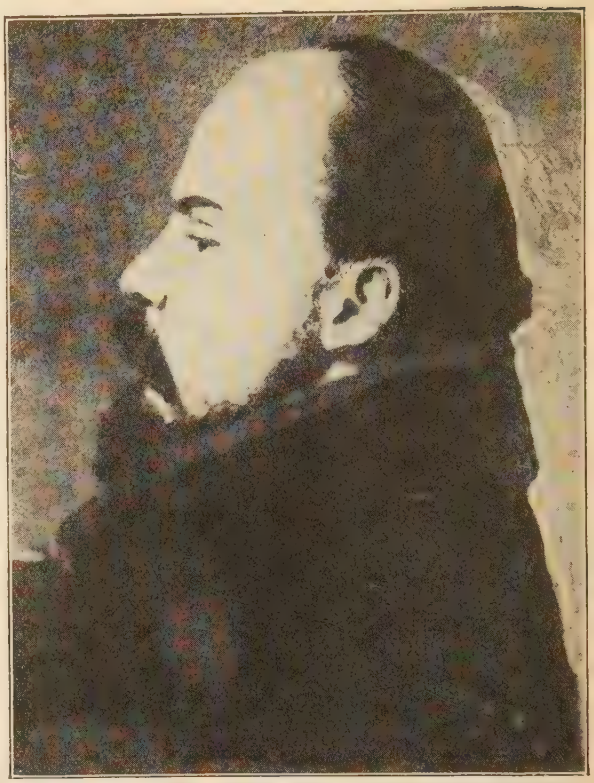
General Petain, the French commander-in-chief, seems to have expected Hindenburg to concentrate against the French. The most likely point of attack against the French was in the Rheims region and Petain strongly urged General Haig, the British commander-in-chief, to take over twenty-eight more miles of front on both sides of St. Quentin but mostly south of that city. General Haig was not sure that the Germans' confidence would not lead to an attack

southern third of this front was weakly held, that its rear defences were not completed and that the bulk of the British reserves were well to the north behind a vital portion of the line while the bulk of the French reserves were well to the east in the region of Rheims where the French were awaiting an onslaught. He argued that if he could make a huge breach in the allied front at the point where the British front ended and the French front began, the German armies

could push well through, turn, and then roll up the lines of the separated allied armies, driving the British northwestward towards the Straits of Dover and the French southeastward towards the Swiss frontier, in which case Paris would be gathered in without trouble and the allied armies be destroyed at leisure.

During her last bid for victory, made on the western front in 1918, Germany used 3,000,000 men. Of these 2,500,000 were on hand and available when the great opening attack was made upon the British on March 21st. The British armies at that time held a front of 125 miles stretching northward from the Oise river in France, to a point just beyond Ypres in Belgium. The order of the British armies from south to north was Fifth, Third, First and Second, their commanders, in the same order, being Generals Gough, Byng, Horne and Plumer. Although the British held but little more than one-fourth of the entire battle-front between Switzerland and the North Sea they really were playing a much more important part than the length of line indicated for opposed to them were two and a half times as many Germans to the mile as were to be found elsewhere. This was true even before the Germans massed their troops for the final offensive.

The methods the Germans would use in their attack were known to the allies. The British army headquarters frankly published a statement in the middle of February in which the British officers said that the Germans, after training their troops for a dash over destroyed trenches and for open fighting beyond were already bringing their men forward towards the line and that after a few hours' violent bombardment the assault troops, which would stealthily enter the front trenches during the night after a long march, would "go over the top." It was expected that powerful tanks, shells combining high explosives and gases and vast numbers of mobile guns that would keep pace with the advancing infantry, would feature the German onslaught. This whole program was carried out as anticipated by the intelligence corps of the British army with the exception that the German tanks played a very unimportant part.



Premier Nikolai Lenine of the Bolshevik Russian Government.

All through the winter of 1917-18 the British army prepared for a defensive in the first half of the 1918 fighting season or until sufficient troops from America were ready for offensive operations. It was considered quite possible that a retirement from St. Quentin to the Somme bend at Peronne might be forced, and the bridgehead at Peronne was very powerfully fortified and the whole line of the Somme prepared as a defensive position. It was felt that more ground could be yielded safely here than farther north and it was in the Arras region that the strongest measures were taken to check an enemy advance. Along the whole front, the first two or three miles back

from No Man's Land constituted an outpost line studded with redoubts and machine gun nests. It was hoped that the Germans, after their preparatory bombardment, would suffer staggering losses in trying to overwhelm the survivors of this thinly-held outpost area and that when they reached the main battle-positions on the far side their assaults would collapse.

All the weather conditions favored the German attack. The season was exceptionally advanced and extraordinarily dry but the enemy waited until he was sure that a heavy morning mist would overhang the battle area. Then after a bombardment exceeding in fury anything the world ever had known the storm troops dashed forward. On the first day they broke well into the outpost positions but made no alarming progress. The next day, seeing signs of weakness in the St. Quentin region, the enemy redoubled his efforts in that quarter and broke clean through and immediately it became necessary for the forces on either side to retreat in order to avoid being hopelessly outflanked.

To say that the world was astounded and thrown into a state of consternation by this German success is to state the truth mildly. The average person had come to believe that siege warfare would be continued until the end of the war. People had been told so many times that it was beyond the power of either side to break through and the slow variation of the battle-line in other years had so destroyed their hopes that they looked for nothing very spectacular on land and certainly not a war of movement. The fact that for years the British had not lost a gun and that in 1916 and 1917 the British had conducted repeated offensives against the enemy with ever-increasing success, had lulled them into a sense of security which even the desertion of Russia with one-half of all the allied soldiery

Flight of Russians. The camera caught a handful of the thousands as they fled in disorder from the foe.

and the disastrous defeat of the Italian army a few months before had not swept away.

The German success in the closing days of March were most impressive. Two days after the battle began Berlin claimed the capture of 16,000 British soldiers and 200 guns. These figures soon grew to 70,000 British prisoners and 1,200 guns captured. The efforts of General Gough to stay his retreat at the Somme were not successful. The fortified British defences on a 60 mile front soon were obliterated. The dryness of the season enabled the Germans to break across at unexpected points and fearing that his somewhat disorganized army was in no condition to make a stand and that a debacle might result from a rash attempt to hang on, General Gough ordered the abandonment of the great Peronne bridgehead.

As the enemy advanced, gap after gap opened in the living battle-front the allies tried to present to the foe. The British, aided by the French, had the utmost difficulty preventing the enemy from getting far to the rear of their main forces. Cavalry had not shown to advantage on other occasions but the British commander-in-chief himself bears testimony to the fact that on this occasion but for the heroic sacrifices made by the cavalry that dashed forward to fill the gaps as they appeared, it is hard to see how the tide of defeat could have been stayed. Labor units under Generals Grant and Carey, Canadian and American engineers who happened to be in the line of advance, and even Chinese coolies were thrown into the breaches. These, with the aid of troops hurriedly detached from the nearest French armies and of Canadian cavalry, and some light tanks, performed invaluable services. Without them, Amiens could not have been saved.

Advancing at the rate of seven miles a day for six days, the Germans by March 28th, were 43 miles beyond their starting point at St. Quentin and their guns near Montdidier were shelling the most important of the allies' lateral lines of communication, which ran through Amiens. At the same time projectiles from a marvellous cannon were dropping on Paris from a point more than 80 miles away in the forest of St. Gobain, near Laon.

Real head of the Greek government and the commander of the Allied forces in Greece. Left to right: Eleutherius Venizelos, the prime minister of Greece, and the real head of the Greek government, with General Sarrail, French commander of the Allied forces in Greece.

It was hoped by the Germans that this new form of frightfulness, and the exaggerated stories of panic-stricken civilian refugees, would cause the complete collapse of the morale of France. In this the enemy was disappointed. Premier Clemenceau rose to the occasion by a display of sublime courage. The French army never showed to better advantage. It quickly put into effect plans for mutual co-operation that already existed, and took over ten miles of British front which, by the determined advance of the enemy soon was stretched to a length of fifty miles, extending easterly and westerly and

Ferdinand, King of Roumania.

not northerly and southerly as before.

Innumerable deeds of gallantry performed by individuals and by units which were performed in the path of the German advance never will be chronicled. Only a few have been recorded. One of these is told by General Haig in his official report. The enemy had swept over Roisel, Peronne, Ham, Nesle, Bray, Chaulnes and Roye and 100 men of the 61st Brigade, 20th division, were told off under the command of Captain E. C. Combe, M. C., to make a stand at Quesnoy and cover the retreat of their division. From early morning until six at night this little detachment fought against terrible odds until finally the order came for it to retire. By that time only eleven of the gallant one hundred survived. The other eighty-nine had sacrificed themselves that their fellows might effect their retirement and that the Great Cause for which the allies fought might prevail.

Within ten days the enemy's drive south of the Somme river definitely was checked, notwithstanding the fact that General Gough's Fifth Army virtually had been destroyed, and its commander assigned to the task of preparing field defences.

On March 26th, the British and French government appointed General Foch as governments appointed General Foch as in the western arena. Two days later General Gough was transferred and General Rawlinson was placed in command of the British forces south of the Somme river. At this time the Fourth British Army, that Rawlinson previously had commanded, was in reserve. North of the Somme the battle-front stabilized following the crushing defeat of an attack launched against Arras on March 28th. Byng's Third Army had come through the ordeal with flying colors, although on several successive days it was dangerously menaced by German troops that kept filtering through and opening up new gaps. At last every hole was plugged up and every outflanking movement baffled and the enemy was forced to turn elsewhere in the hope of gaining a new success.

It always will be a matter of controversy how much, if at all, General Gough was to blame for the British reverse in March. His commander-in-chief emphasizes the fact that while Byng with his Third Army held only 27 miles of front, with an average of one division to 4,700 yards, Gough with his Fifth Army held a front of 42 miles, with an average of one division to every 6,750 yards of front. In other words, relative to its task, the Fifth Army was one-third weaker than the Third Army. On the opening day of the attack the enemy launched 64 divisions against 29 British divisions, of which only 19 actually were on the firing line, the others being in reserve. Before this first drive spent itself in front of Amiens, the enemy had used 73 divisions and the British 42 divisions.

The critical situation facing the allies in the first week of April easily can be

Montenegrin Standard Bearer.

imagined. The Fifth British Army virtually had been destroyed by the German attack. Probably between one-half and two-thirds of its numbers had been killed, wounded or captured. The remainder were in no condition for immediate fighting and had to be sent to quiet parts of the line or to reserve camps for rest and reorganization. Even the Third Army was in a serious state, from fighting night and day without sleep and sometimes for days at a stretch without food. Thus one-half of the entire British forces in France had been destroyed or had its fighting efficiency dangerously impaired. At the same time the length of battle-front that had to be defended, in the open and without the aid of elaborately fortified systems, had increased from fifty to one hundred miles. Obviously, the British were in no condition to take care of all the new front, and the French army under General Fayolle rapidly extended its front westward, and with the aid of other French troops concentrated 300,000 men on the southern half of the huge salient made by the German advance. This drain on the French reserves and the weakening of the French front along the Aisne and elsewhere offered the enemy the alternative of making a drive southward towards Paris against the French or westward towards the Channel ports against the British. As the British were in much the more serious condition, the enemy elected to resume his offensive operations by a smash westward from the Aubers ridge on April 9th.

Before the German drive in Flanders developed it became clear to most observers that the decisive struggle then progressing would continue throughout the spring and summer and that victory would depend on the speed with which the belligerents put their last reserves into the fray. The enemy, having failed to gain complete success in March, was sure to scour all Central Europe for men. The allies, on their part, sent out messages for help to the outermost parts of the earth. In one of these appeals, the British premier said to Canada's governor-general "Let no one think that what even the remotest of our Dominions can now do can be too late." The allies also made the most urgent representations to the United States to speed up the transportation of troops to Europe. It was found that the United States was making elaborate preparations for war in 1919 and 1920 and was far behind in its program for providing airplanes, guns and munitions in 1918. The American army was without adequate divisional organization for the troops when they landed in France and the training of the troops could not be hurriedly completed on the continent. The allies, however, persuaded the United States to rush forward troops without their full equipment, promising to make up all deficiencies, themselves, so far as possible, and to assist in the training. General Pershing splendidly co-operated by offering to permit trained American troops to be brigaded for service with British and French troops and President Wilson agreed that if the

Prof. Thomas G. Masaryk, President of Czecho-Slovakia, Signing the Declaration of Independence of Czecho-Slovakia, in Independence Hall, Philadelphia.

allies would find sufficient vessels, American troops would go forward at the rate of 250,000 a month.

By the opening of April the Germans already had overrun 1,200 additional square miles of French soil and the hearts of the French people, who had been hoping for nearly four years to see the enemy expelled, nearly stopped beating. It appeared to be likely that the second drive would be made in the north, and that the ports of Calais and Boulogne. By April 3rd the world knew that trained American troops were marching down the roads of France to share in the great ordeal on the German offensive front. The total number of American troops ready for service at that time was about 200,000.

A number of circumstances favored the German drive in Flanders in April. Part of the front to be attacked was manned by Portuguese who had been

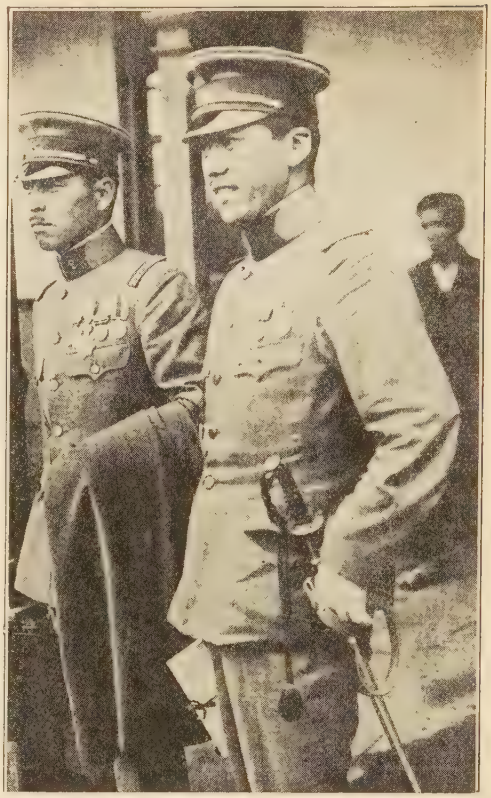
Latest photo of Ex-King Constantine, Queen Sophie and their children at their castle in Switzerland. In the family group sitting from left to right are Ex-Crown Prince George, Ex-Queen Sophie, Ex-King Constantine and Princess Helene. Standing are Princess Katherine, Prince Paul and Princess Irene.

enemy would try to crowd the allies out of the 300 square miles of Belgian soil that they had managed to hold since the beginning of the war. Colonel Repington, the London Times' correspondent, had expressed the opinion that "grave strategic decisions may not be only due but overdue", by which he meant that perhaps the allies already should have abandoned Ypres and the rest of Belgium and northwestern France and the Channel long without a rest period, who never had experienced a real offensive and who were in course of removal from the trenches when the attack was launched. Another part of the front was held by hard-tried veterans who had been put in this supposedly quiet sector after being terribly decimated in the March fighting. Here, too, the dryness of the season made possible a quick advance over the usually muddy lowlands on both sides of the Lys

Japan honors late American ambassador, provides cruiser to carry body to United States. The first-class Japanese cruiser Azuma steaming from Tokio with the body of the late George W. Guthrie, American ambassador to Japan. The body was brought to San Francisco. Solemn ceremonies marked the sailing of the vessel.

river. At a point so far north, also, it was much harder for the French and American troops to render assistance. By keeping after the overworked and partly exhausted British army, the Germans hoped to break the backbone of the allied resistance and gain a triumph that would repay them for all their losses in the colossal struggle.

The fact that the British were anticipating an attack on the Flanders front or in the Artois did not save them from a second serious setback. The Germans smashed forward on a 35-mile front to a depth of 13 miles and in the first three days of the attack captured more than 20,000 men and 200 guns. The line opposite the Portuguese was completely pierced and only by the most desperate gallantry of various British units was the gap closed. The fact that the Australian troops some weeks before had been moved south to the Ancre river region made it the more difficult to redeem the situation. The enemy drove up the Lys valley and turning northward menaced the line of retreat of the British forces in the Ypres salient. As they moved northward up the slopes of the ridge on which Mount Kemmel stood out like an island, it became evident that the British had not the power to wage an immediate counter-offensive and that it was advisable to reduce the famous Ypres salient so as to be in a better position to prevent a break-through that would give the enemy the Channel ports. Then on April 17th, eight days after the enemy's drive began, it was announced that Messines, Passchendaele, Zonnebeke, Hill 60 and Hollebeke, and all the high ground that the British, Canadian and Australasian troops had taken at the cost of 150,000 casualties in 1917 had been abandoned to the foe. It is known now that this was in accordance with plans drawn up some time before. These were carried out with remarkable success, so that the enemy was full of chagrin when he learned that the enemy had eluded his grasp even before he stretched out his hand. By dodging the blow the enemy was preparing in Belgium, General Plumer threw the enemy off his stride and made it necessary for him to go several miles over shell-mutilated ground and prepare all over again for a great advance.



Japanese Officers Representing Japan at Allied Councils.

At this time General Maurice, the director of British military operations, an official located in England, was so concerned about the course of operations and possibly so prejudiced against the appointment of a generalissimo in the person of Foch, a military officer of a foreign nation, that he broke into print with the question "Where is Blucher?", thereby intimating that the allied commander-in-chief was not properly and promptly supporting the British forces in the field. For this extraordinary piece of presumption he was removed from office. It would have been impossible to retain him and preserve sympathetic relations

with the sorely-tried French republic. The answer to General Maurice's question came in a few days when French troops went into the firing line north of the Lys river and made vigorous local counter-attacks.

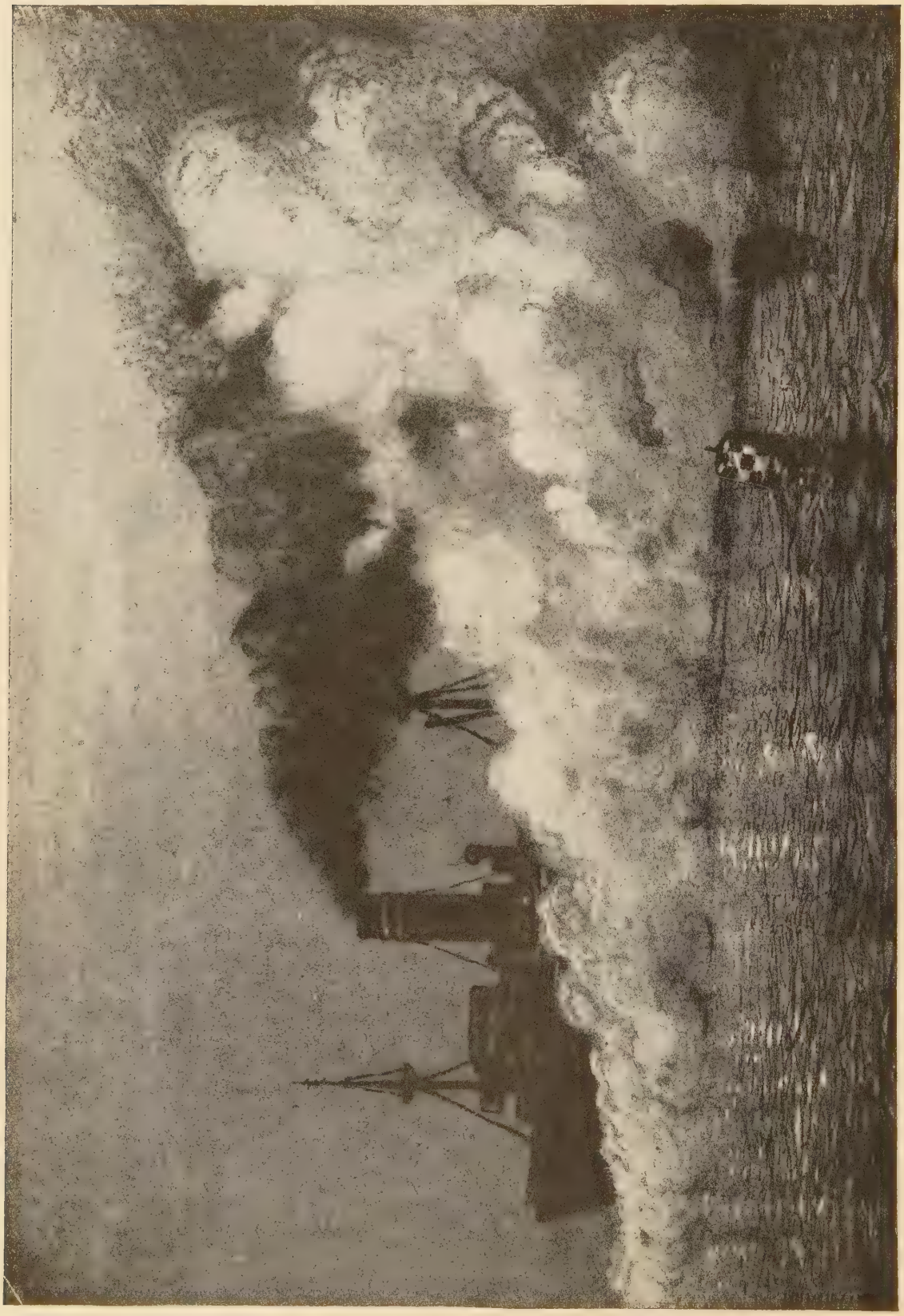
A month after the enemy had begun his spring campaign against the British the enemy still was going strong, but in reality he had shot his bolt against the British. Although here and there evidences of demoralization had been seen, on the whole the British army never had fought better against terrible odds. Small groups of men stood their ground stubbornly when hopelessly outnumbered and died to the last man after taking an awful toll of the advancing enemy. The enemy knew that this year's campaign was his last great gamble, with World Power or Downfall as the stakes, and that having gone into the venture there could be no halting betwixt two opinions, or counting of the cost. He was conscious of the fact that his own people and those of his allies were weary of the strain of war and that unless a complete triumph were secured at once they would refuse to go on with the struggle. And so the enemy frantically spurred on his devoted soldiery.

The marvellous effectiveness of the steps taken by the British government to baffle the enemy's offensive campaign was evident within thirty days of the initial attack. Perhaps the British setback would not have been as great if the same degree of energy, combined with vision, had been shown earlier in the year. At all events, the British were well supplied with reserves of young and partly-trained troops, and with reserves of ammunition, guns and airplanes, all kept in England, and by miracles of transportation it was possible to say that within a month 200,000 fresh troops had been put into France and the numbers and equipment of the British army brought quite up to what they were before the German offensive campaign began. By that time, also, it

Roumania's Queen Marie, a staunch supporter of the Allied cause.

became known that the Germans had used 1,600,000 men in the attacks during the month, of whom more than 1,000,000 had been used against the British, 300,000 against the French and another 300,000 against mixed forces of British and French.

On April 25th Mount Kemmel was in the hands of the Germans but their progress had become painful and very slow. They held positions in a narrow salient against which a punishing fire could be brought to bear from north, west and south, and it seemed likely that their mad rush again was restrained and that they would be forced elsewhere to obtain a spectacular success. During the seven weeks between March 21st and April 30th, the armies of Britain were harder pressed than ever before in their history and they came through with flying colors. Not in the days of Wellington or Marlborough had they shown greater tenacity



Smoke Screen for Protection Against Attack.

or more conspicuous gallantry. Fifty-five British divisions had fought to a standstill no less than 109 German divisions.

It was about this time—on April 23rd—that the British navy essayed to do what the British army in 1917 had attempted, namely, to prevent the enemy from using the German submarine bases on the Belgian coast at Ostend and Zeebrugge. Actually there was but one submarine base and that was at Bruges, at Ostend. Later, the best known of the vessels used in the raid at Zeebrugge, the Vindictive, which had put the landing party on the Mole, was sunk as a blockade vessel off Ostend. These brilliant performances by British seamen were undertaken because of the evidence that for months the British land forces would be in no position to deny the enemy the use of his submarine bases. Their success did much to stimulate the resolution of the British people to persevere until

Roumanian army reorganized, ready to strike death blow against Germans. The Roumanian army had been reorganized by the French, and made ready to fight again.

some miles inland, from which canals ran to Zeebrugge and Ostend. The spectacular raids made on the canals at these places, in which 150 vessels participated, were very successful and for five months denied to the enemy the use of the Belgian coast for the purposes of submarines. Three obsolete British cruisers, filled with concrete, were sunk in the shifting sands at the mouth of the canal at Zeebrugge and two at the mouth of the canal

German militarism was destroyed, no matter what the sacrifices.

When May was reached conflicting opinions were expressed by various authorities as to the war outlook. It was reported that Lloyd George was almost irritated by the quiet confidence of General Foch and that turning to the allied generalissimo he asked whether he meant to be understood as saying that he would be rather in the position of the allies than

in the position of the Germans. It is said that the allied generalissimo answered in the affirmative. That may have been the case, but General Foch undoubtedly was looking at general conditions, the vast reserves that were hurrying towards the allies from America and to the final outcome of the war rather than to the prospects for the immediate future. General Robertson of the British army was complimented by the English press at this time for warning the British people that they must expect a long war, which was an unfortunate view to express because it was the very one that had prevented the United States from being ready for the fray in the spring of 1918 and the one, which, if acted on, was most likely to cause the allies to leave undone those extreme things that needed to be done to baffle and defeat the enemy once and for all during the season's campaign. When the middle of May was reached, the view of the British headquarters staff, as semi-officially uttered through the Associated Press was that "for the whole summer the situation must continue to be an anxious one."

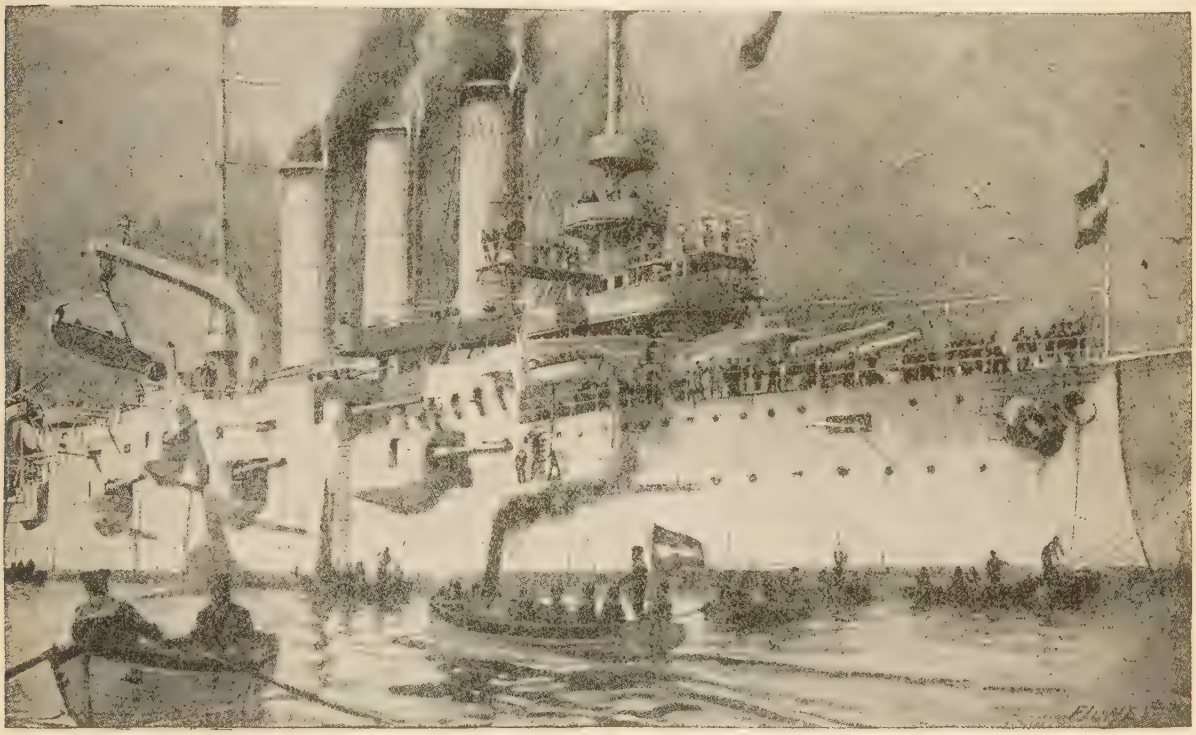
By the middle of May the world learned that General Foch had been placed in command of all the allied forces between the Adriatic and the North Seas. Serious as matters were on the French front, there was no certainty that they would not become worse because of the British and French having to increase the aid they had extended to the Italians towards the close of 1917. The Italian army was so weakened by the Isonzo disaster that the allies during the trying days of the following March, April and May had to ever bear in mind that the Italian armies, although much improved in morale and equipment, might not be able to stand alone. It was clear that the moves made on the western and southwestern fronts really would be part of one great campaign and that the allied cause was almost as much concerned with one front as with the other. On that account it was desirable that the reserves of all the allied nations should be pooled and be located and used in the way calculated to give the best results. When Foch took over supreme command of the Italian forces, it was understood that he had under his control 1,200,000 British troops, 1,500,000 French, 250,000 Americans and 1,000,000 Italians. These figures, particularly of Americans and Italians, did

Last chapter in the famous Dumba incident. Goodbye, Doctor Dumba. Doctor and Madame Constantin Dumba aboard the S. S. Nieu Amsterdam, which carried the former Austrian Ambassador and his wife back home on the request to his government by the United States that he be recalled.

not represent all the troops in reserve and in training.

On the 27th of May the German commander-in-chief turned from the British to attack the French. He had been amazed to find that the British had 200,000 men whom they speedily could bring over from England to the battle-front and the fact that the British had made good a large proportion of their losses and that the Germans had suffered casualties estimated at 550,000 as against the British 360,000 casualties, was quite disconcerting. There are some indications that the Kaiser Wilhelm and Von Hindenburg were disposed to continue all their efforts against the British but that Ludendorff, Von Hindenburg's quartermaster-general and chief lieutenant, sided with the crown prince in demanding that a terrific drive be made against the French on the Aisne heights.

In support of their views, the crown prince and Ludendorff probably urged that the French front north of the Aisne had been weakened appreciably by the extension of its front westward and that the only place where the French were prepared and awaiting attack was east of Rheims. They also may have emphasized the fact that the numerous spurs running from the Aisne ridge down to the river would facilitate the German plan of infiltration and permit large forces to pass in comparative shelter behind the spurs into the valley and the bridgeheads beyond, thus cutting off the allied troops remaining on the high ground. Another consideration was the fact that near the point where the battle-front curved away from the ridge and passed southward across the Aisne, some overworked British troops had been put in for a rest.



"Herzog Karl," Austrian Battleship Surrendered to Italy.

Whatever led the German leaders to change their plans, the fact is that after pounding the British for two months and six days they gave the British a much-needed rest and turned their attentions to the comparatively fresh French armies. They were then sixty miles away from

Paris and fifty miles from the Channel ports. Obviously the allies had much more freedom of movement when the Germans turned southward than they had when the waters of the Channel were so close behind them. An advance of twenty miles westward at almost any point and of ten miles at some points probably would have made it advisable for the allies to abandon Dunkirk, Belgium and the Channel ports and take up a front along the lower Somme river.

in March did not indicate that the morale of the British troops, which had been good throughout four years of war, had deteriorated, and whether the generalship was not even worse. It may be that this feeling was weakened by the developments following the German drive beginning on May 27. On that day the German troops swept across the Ailette river, stormed the Aisne heights on the far side and sweeping southward reached the Aisne river in the rear of many thou-

The Great German Battle Cruiser "Moltke" among those surrendered to the Allies.

On the whole it appears that the Germans were guilty of a first-class blunder when they gave the British a breathing spell that lasted for nearly two months or until the allies were able to return to the offensive. The best that can be said for their tactics is that they hoped by a sudden change of front to catch the allies off their guard.

Up to this time there were some people in France who were wondering whether the great reverse suffered by the British

sands of allied troops. The British troops sandwiched in among the French were put in a particularly precarious position by the collapse of the French front immediately west of them. The troops of both nations, however, fought gallantly. They were attacked by forces outnumbering them by at least two to one.

Four days after the Aisne attack began the enemy was in full possession of the famous Chemin Des Dames (Ladies' Walk) and the territory taken by the

French at the cost of well on to two hundred thousand casualties in the abortive Nivelle offensive in April of the previous year. Not only so, but the enemy was 30 miles beyond his starting point, having driven a mighty wedge into the allied front that reached all the way to the Marne river. The front of attack was more than forty miles wide. During the first three days of his advance the victorious enemy captured more than 400 guns and more than 45,000 prisoners, and Marne river, sixteen miles apart. The check to the enemy administered by the Americans came at a critical moment. The enemy for the second time in the war was across the Marne river and heading for Paris. The Americans, with some French troops, tackled the enemy at Chateau Thierry and at Jaulgonne, on the east, and hurled the enemy back to the north bank. The enemy was not in great strength, fortunately, but his loss of the bridgehead held up his advance

Types of Austrian Troops That Invaded Roumania.

British papers printed statements to the effect that the whole war situation had become one of "the utmost gravity." During their advance to the Marne the enemy crossed two important lateral lines of communication, including the railway running to Verdun from Paris through Rheims.

June the 4th saw some signs of improvement from the allied viewpoint. On that day troops from the United States came into action at two points on the and made it necessary for him to make elaborate preparations for forcing the river. The general situation still caused uneasiness and Premier Clemenceau, whose frequent visits to the front did much to inspire confidence on the part of both civilians and military, took the precaution of ordering the creation of a Committee for the Defence of Paris.

It has not been made clear as to what extent, if at all, the defeat on the Aisne heights was due to the faulty staff work

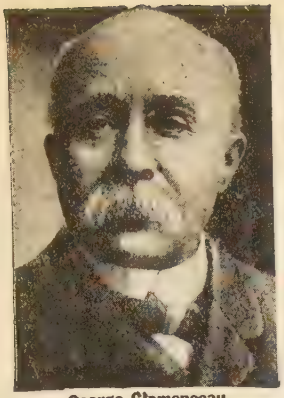
A United States Soldier Completely Equipped for Service. On his back this American fighting man carries his blanket roll, small shovel, bag, etc. His canteen is at his belt. He is armed with a 30 calibre U. S. Army rifle. Minimum weight for maximum efficiency is the principle upon which his whole outfit has been designed.

of the local commander. There are some indications that the defensive measures were not of the best. The measures put into effect two weeks later when the enemy tried to widen his offensive front and merge the new Marne salient with the Montdidier salient by attacking on both sides of the Oise river were extraordinarily successful and the local counter-attacks were much more powerful and effective than on any previous occasion. American troops near Montdidier had some part in delivering these counter blows. While the enemy advanced a maximum distance of six miles on a front of thirty miles he did not gain a spectacular success, a fact which was not covered up by the declaration of the Prussian War Minister that as a result of the two blows a large part of the French army had been defeated.

The Aisne attack was a most spectacular victory, bought at a very low price, but the attack on the Oise sector undoubtedly cost the enemy more casualties than it cost the French and the enemy made no appreciable progress towards his goal, which was the destruction of the British and French armies before the power of the United States could be made to tell. American troops continued to arrive at the rate of a quarter of a million a month and already those that had preceded them were rendering aid of some consequence.

The severe check administered to the Germans early in June at the Oise gave the enemy something to think about. It forced him to take time to make more careful preparation for his next attack which, in view of the advance in the season, necessarily had to be much more successful than any that had preceded it. This delay was imposed on the enemy when it was only too plain to him that speed was the essence of victory. The situation for the enemy was most exasperating. He was tantalizingly near to the Channel ports and tantalizingly near to the French capital, possession of either of which would have given him a powerful lever in securing peace. No doubt he

The Victorious Allied Leaders



George Clemenceau, French Premier.

Marshal Ferdinand Foch, generalissimo of the allied armies.

David Lloyd-George, British premier.

Gen. John J. Pershing, commander in chief of the American expeditionary forces.

Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States.

King Albert I. of Belgium, also commander of armies.

Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, c'd'r. in chief of the British armies

Col. E. M. House, personal adviser to President Wilson.

Raymond Poincare, President of France

Premier Venizelos, the man who did most to bring Greece in on the side of the allies.

King Victor Emmanuel of Italy.

Gen. Diaz, commander in chief of the Italian armies.

Crown Prince Alexander of Serbia, commander of the Serbian army.

also felt he was tantalizingly near to overpowering the hard-pressed allied armies which, however, always seemed to have just enough strength left to baffle his efforts to deliver the coup de mort.

A circumstance that added to the irritation of the enemy was the tardiness of the Austrians in striking on the Italian front. The German warlords felt that a triumph on the Italian front, where the allies held vulnerable positions, would help materially their campaign in France.

Cheered by these developments, Lloyd George declared that "there is not the slightest doubt in my mind, surveying the whole facts, that our victory will be complete." A few days later, Von Kuehlmann, the German Foreign Minister, was dismissed for stating that a military victory was beyond the reach of either side, a view he probably was put up to express in the hope of evoking a favorable response from the allied side, and a view that the Kaiser and Von Hindenburg are

The great Teutonic drive into Russia. Austrian troops with arms stacked enjoying a brief rest in the mountains.

In the middle of June the Austrians did attack, but after an opening success of considerable dimensions, nature opened the floodgates of heaven and severed communication with the far bank of the Piave river, and the Austrian offensive collapsed. Almost simultaneously the Germans made a minor attack, with 40,000 men against the acute salient around Rheims, and this, too, was a dismal failure.

supposed to have shared. The extremists among the warlords were furious at this moderate statement, which was not unreasonable considering that the German losses of nearly a million men in less than four months had not brought a decisive success.

An estimate of the German and allied casualties in the four drives of the German offensive campaign taking place before the first of July is as follows:

Offensive.	German casualties.	Allied casualties.
March 31	350,000	200,000
April 9	200,000	160,000
May 27	125,000	150,000
June 9	225,000	150,000
Total casualties Mar. 31-July 1	900,000	660,000

The fifth and last of the drives of the German offensive campaign in 1918 began on July 15. The allied battle-front, which formerly had stretched in a general direction northerly to the North Sea from the Aisne, now appeared as a bent and twisted thing. It bagged alarmingly in three places as a result of the driving forward of the German battering-ram. These huge salients were west of Lille in the Lys valley, between Arras and Soissons and between Soissons and Rheims, the last two being referred to sometimes as the Montdidier and Marne salients. Between these two salients in the German line the allied line curved sharply away from Paris around the forests of Villiers-Cotterets and Compiegne. On the south end of this salient, between the Marne and the Aisne, French and American troops applied persistent pressure during June and drove the enemy back two or three miles but without reducing the Marne salient to a degree dangerous for the Germans.

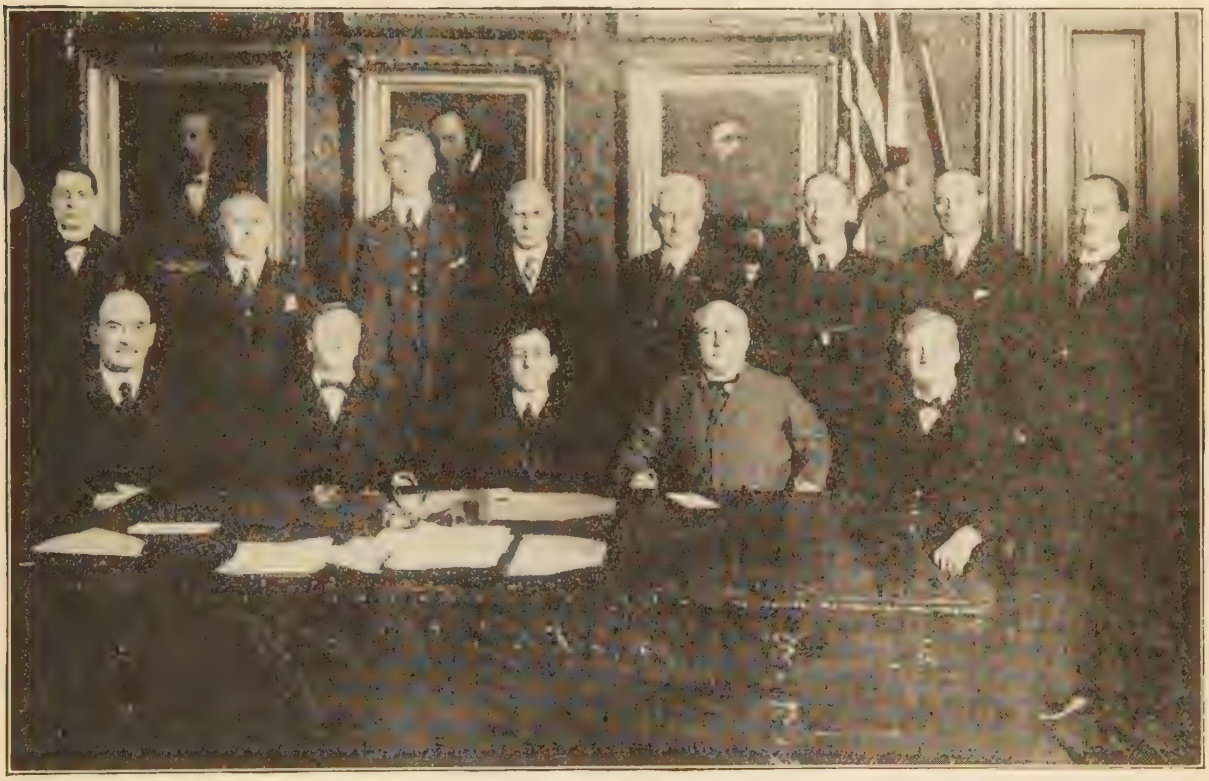
The enemy, as we have seen, was very anxious to merge the Marne and Montdidier salients and acquire a broad front opposite Paris from which he could maintain a continuous bombardment of the city with a multitude of guns capable of firing forty miles, but the allied resistance here was too strong, and he determined to wage east of Rheims the offensive he had prepared earlier in the season, attacking southward, at the same time as he tried to move southward and southeastward from the east side of the Marne salient. He was aware that Foch had massed troops between the Marne front and Paris and he hoped that by eluding these by going round them on the east, he could surround Rheims and sweep over Epernay and Chalons with ease, and three days later be forty miles from his starting point and far to the southeast of Paris. Such a success would have placed the allied armies in a more serious position than they were in the opening month of the war.

A United States Naval Militia Bugler Sounding a Call "To the Colors"

The last German offensive in the war was doomed to failure from the outset.

President Wilson and his Cabinet.

The enemy used half a million men in this effort and would have put in more had his initial attack obtained success. He made the cardinal error of putting into the Marne salient, which was 25 miles deep and only 25 miles across, hundreds of thousands of men with the vast supplies of material required for a great drive. His lines of communication within the salient were vulnerable to shellfire from three directions and his thickly-massed troops were sure to encounter a better. Under the skilful leadership of General Gouraud, they withdrew from the heights of Moronvilliers, evaded the blow dealt at them and terribly decimated the enemy as he advanced across the shattered outpost positions. The enemy's advance here averaged only a mile and a half on a 25-mile front. The enemy was in such apparent difficulty in his isolated position south of the Marne and he had suffered such heavy losses at all points without compensation, that General Foch



Nation's defense in the hands of these men. The Council of National Defense and the Advisory Commission and the directors and secretaries of both bodies in joint session in the office of the Secretary of War, Washington, D. C.

punishing fire. The consequence was that the best the enemy could do west of Rheims was to advance a maximum distance of five miles on a 25-mile front, the average being only three miles. This advance enabled him to gain a precarious foothold or bridgehead south of the Marne. Here the Americans did exceptionally well and they and the French always were masters of the situation.

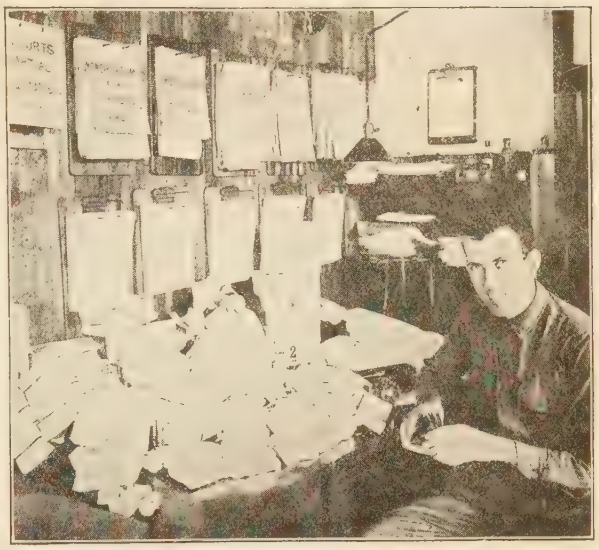
East of Rheims the French did even concluded that the time had come for snatching the initiative from the enemy. And so on July the 18th, three days after the opening of the Germans' final offensive effort, the allied generalissimo let loose the allied thunderbolt and French and American troops began the first allied offensive of the year by attacking the 25 miles of German front nearest to Paris. In this onslaught the allies used 200,000 troops.

The Honorable Robert Lansing, Secretary of State by reason of the resignation of Secretary Bryan.

The allied attack was successful beyond all expectations. As the German storm troops facing eastward battered themselves in vain against the allied defences on the east side of the Marne salient the allied offensive troops, also facing eastward, smashed in the western side of the salient on which the Germans were standing on the defensive. Thus an attacking allied army was moving in the same direction, roughly, as the German attacking forces on the far side of the salient and at a distance of only 25 miles in their rear, a situation seldom seen in warfare. In the first two days of their attack the allies advanced eight miles, capturing 17,000 Germans and 360 guns. Within two weeks, notwithstanding the most frantic opposition, they had advanced 16 miles, the Marne salient had been reduced, 500 square miles of the soil of France had been redeemed, and 30,000 Germans and 500 cannon had been captured.

The turning back of the tide of German invasion in 1918 was due to the same causes as explain the ebbing of the tide of German militarism in 1914. The enemy was overconfident and underrated the offensive powers of the allied forces, and as a result, made inadequate provision for the protection of the right flank of his advancing armies. And so when the allied shock troops attacked on July 18 under General Mangin they turned the flank of Von Boehm's army as General Manoury four years before, at the previous battle of the Marne, had turned the flank of Von Kluck's army. On each occasion the enemy was taken at a serious disadvantage and had to retreat. By tremendous effort and at great sacrifice immediate disaster was averted, but the setback in both battles deprived the Germans of their chance of victory and doomed them to ultimate defeat. In 1914 the commander-in-chief of the German armies was Von Moltke; in 1918 it was Von Hindenburg.

No greater mistake can be made than to imagine that General Foch had lured



Getting Ready to Pay the Boys at Camp Meade. No less than $300,000 is in sight here.

the Germans on to the Marne by pretending weakness and that he was sure of victory when he struck back. The whole period from March 21 to July 15 was one of genuine anxiety for the allied military leaders and statesmen and as late as the middle of June the allies were discussing whether it would be better to evacuate Paris or the Channel ports. When the Germans began their last offensive on July 15, they had a superiority of half a million men on the western front or three times the numerical superiority they had on March 21st. A much larger proportion of their men, however, had become battle-worn owing to unparalleled exertions. There is not the slightest doubt that General Foch was gravely concerned about the degree of success the enemy might gain in July. He felt that the allies could not afford to give more ground as any considerable German advance would imperil the integrity of the allied armies or at least put the enemy in a position where he could bring great pressure on the allies to make peace.

General Foch took terrible risks in July in preparing to prevent a German advance on Paris. He concluded that the enemy meant to make an attack in that direction and therefore he withdrew 200,-

Secretary of the Treasury, William J. McAdoo, Resigned. Mr. McAdoo, the son-in-law of the President, U. S. Railroad Administrator, Resigned.

000 men from positions north of the Somme and held them in readiness in the region between Paris and the nearest point on the battle-front. Superior German forces under Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria still were menacing the vital northern sector and had the German strategists learned of the secret movement southward of allied reserves they might have made another dash forward towards the mouth of the Somme and imperilled all the allied troops in Flanders and the Artois. The enemy appears to have been ignorant of the secret concentration of allied reserves opposite Paris at the expense of the northern allied front and when at comparatively low cost the allies on the Marne and in the Champagne baffled the enemy's blow on July 15, without employing the bulk of their reserves, an obvious opportunity to upset his plans and secure the initiative developed.

We have the authority of General Foch for the statement that he had in his mind no grandiose plan for winning the war when he turned to the offensive. In self-defence he had to strike back at the Marne and later on he found opportunities for waging a genuine offensive campaign. The enemy's stupidity in putting his head into the Marne salient noose gave Foch his first chance, and finding his first drive so successful, Foch thought he would try another, and the second led to the third, and the offensive front gradually widened out until the attack extended to the whole 200 miles of front between Verdun and the North Sea. The main idea of General Foch in the early weeks of the offensive was to put the enemy into a new hole just before he succeeded in getting out of another hole. On each occasion the enemy had to engage additional portions of his reserves until finally he lost his offensive power and even the ability to defend himself. The factor that contributed most to the success of the successive allied drives was the extraordinary secrecy of concentration against the sectors to be attacked. This, also, was the real explanation of the advantages gained by the enemy in his four-months' offensive campaign. At one time it was thought that the huge quantities of war material and the masses of men required for an offensive could not be brought up to any front without being seen by the enemy in time to give ample warning. It also was thought that weeks of bombardment were necessary to reduce the enemy's fortified positions. But as the quantities of munitions and the number of guns along the entire front multiplied, their significance became less obvious, as indicating the nearness of an offensive, and in time it became apparent that a bombardment of but a few hours would suffice to obliterate the strongest fortified systems. Consequently, all that remained to do to obtain the tremendous advantage of surprise and bring about a war of movement was to have hundreds of thousands of men ready to hurl through the breach before the enemy could discover the plan and make a similar concentration opposite the breach. It was this new element of surprise due to the artillery of the offensive mastering the fortified systems of the defensive that revolutionized warfare on the western front and that distinguished the campaign

Soldiers charge German dummies for Red Cross benefit at Fort Hamilton. Besides the event shown in this picture, there were artillery and machine gun drills by the soldiers.

Hon. Newton S. Baker, Secretary of War.

of 1918 from those that preceded it.

Foch's second blow, delivered with a view to retaining the much-prized initiative, was struck by British and French troops south of the Somme river on August 8th. In this attack most of the glory went to the Canadian and Australian troops, which with the 51st British division and a few others comprised the best assault troops in the British army. The Canadian army corps had been on the Vimy front in March and then were taken out and moved south so as to be ready to cope with the enemy in the event of a deadly break through. The crisis passing without it being necessary to employ them, the Canadians were given a special course of training back of Arras. When the time came for the attack on the Somme front, Foch gave orders for the strictest secrecy and for elaborate measures for deceiving the Germans. While the bulk of the Canadian troops were smuggled under cover of night to the Amiens region, some battalions were moved northward to Belgium, where they moved down the roads in broad daylight with colors flying and bands playing, and were put into the firing line near Mount Kemmel. Here telephone conversations

Battleship Pennsylvania, Super-Dreadnaught.

The Hon. Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy

were put on for the express benefit of the German listeners and enemy spies. A few American troops and British shock troops also went through movements suggesting that an attack was about to be made. Then when the enemy was taking steps to meet a tremendous attack on the Mount Kemmel front, the camouflage troops were rushed back to their own units and the mighty drive up the Somme valley began.

Battleship Nevada, Super-Dreadnaught, on Speed Trial.

The second battle of the Somme was a splendid victory for the British and French. The Fourth Army under General Rawlinson represented the British. The enemy was completely surprised and swept off his feet. With the aid of tanks and thousands of mounted troops, the allies advanced a maximum distance of 13 miles on a front of 25 miles taking 14,000 prisoners and hundreds of guns during the first day of their advance. Many units took more prisoners than the total number of their casualties. By the end of the first day the main line of communication and retreat for the enemy within the Montdidier salient was gravely threatened and the enemy was under the necessity of evacuating it at a much faster rate than he abandoned the apex of the Marne salient. By August 12, the enemy was retreating on most of the 100-mile front between Amiens and Rheims. Instead of being in Paris as he had fondly hoped less than a month before when he attacked on the Marne the enemy was retiring towards the Hindenburg line after suffering at least 325,000 casualties

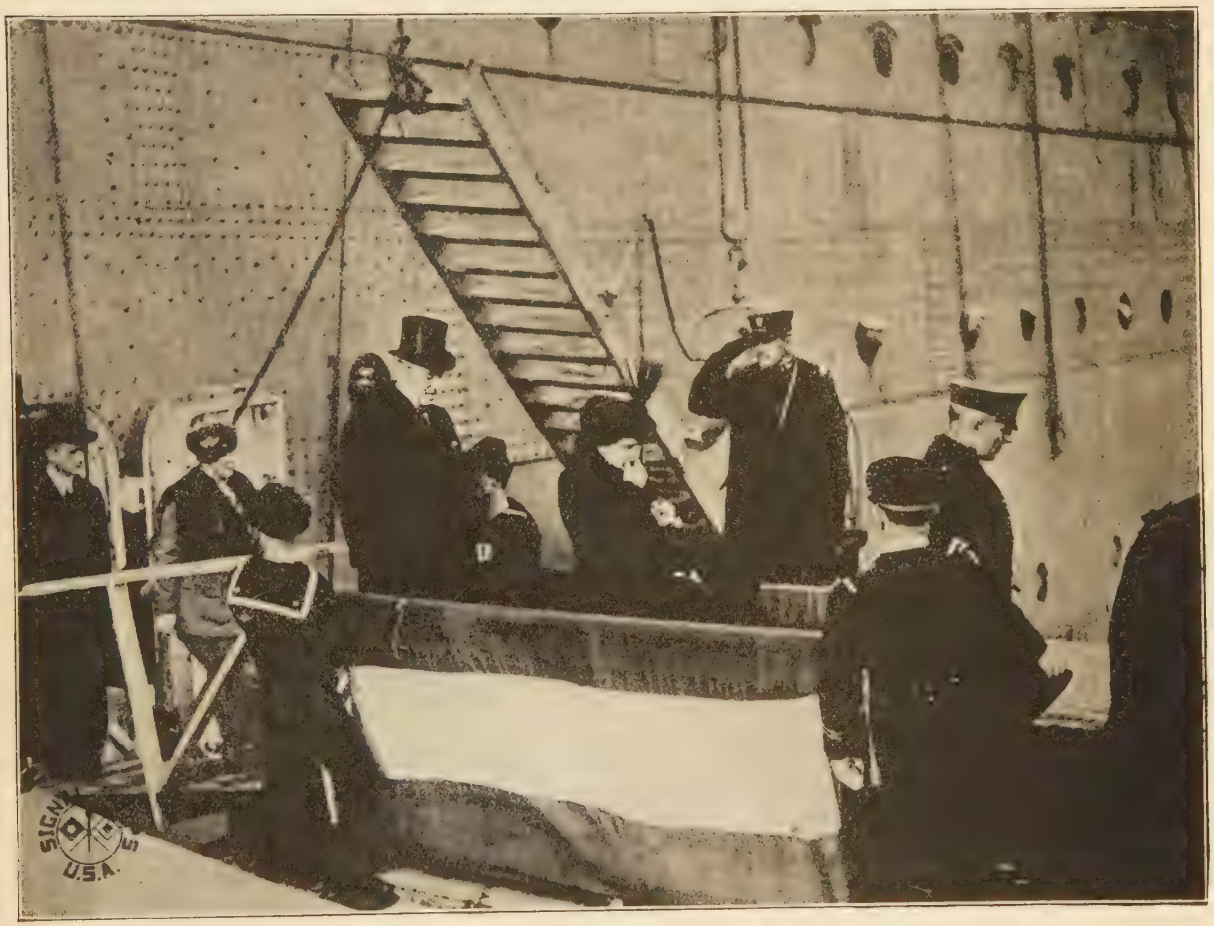
—80,000 of whom were captives in the hands of the allies—and losing 1,400 guns and 850 square miles of French territory.

It must not be thought that the world by this time had formed the opinion that the enemy would lose the war in 1918. The public simply felt that the period of the most intense anxiety probably was past. Some of the highest military authorities reminded the public that the Germans had sprung a come-back after the Byng tank attack near Cambrai in November of 1917 and that the same thing might happen again. Colonel Repington of the London Times expressed the opinion that the Germans might resume their offensive and he advised General Foch not to be imprudent and try for a knockout in 1918. Frank Simonds, the great American war expert, also intimated that the enemy retirement to the Hindenburg line might be unfortunate for the allies as it had been the year before, that the allies would have to slowly advance through innumerable fortified lines before they reached victory, and that the threat to German home territory in possible thrusts by the American army "will hardly be grave." He even went so far as to say that "our enemy has too many reserves and too many prepared positions behind his present front to be in danger of disaster this year and probably next." It is clear that at this time some of the experts did not sense the real situation.

Pres. Wilson and Poincare driving to the house of Prince Murat in Paris, which during the Peace Conference is to be the White House Overseas.

On August 19 the French attacked on the front east of the Oise river. Their

advance here linked up the allied offensive fronts north of the Marne and east of Amiens. At this time the Germans still clung to Roye and Chaulnes and held positions in the old battle zones of 1915-16 west of the upper Somme. Two days later the British Third Army under General Byng drove forward to the south of Arras, advancing five miles on a 17-mile front and securing 10,000 allied attack in the 1918 campaign was the first to signify that the German armies would be overthrown in the fighting season of that year. Some mention the attack made on October 8, when the Hindenburg line was breached between Cambrai and St. Quentin. It is more likely that the attacks made by the Canadians and other British troops east of Arras in the week beginning August



Arrival of President and Mrs. Wilson in Brest, France, on Board S. S. George Washington.

prisoners. Here the British were moving at right angles to their battle-front in the first battle of the Somme. The ease with which they filtered down the Bapaume ridge between the numerous fortified lines of the previous battle quickly discredited the views then in circulation about the impregnability of the positions they were about to attack.

Opinions differ as to which particular 27th really determined that the enemy would have to submit. In the drives of July 18 and August 8 the allies surprised an enemy who virtually was out in the open, protected by only improvised defences and occupying ugly salients. On August 27th, however, he was expecting an attack and felt confident in the strength of the permanent fortified systems he had prepared with the utmost

Rear Admiral William S. Sims, Who Commanded U. S. Fleet Abroad.

care during the preceding two years. These included the famous Drocourt-Queant switch line, with a section of the Hindenburg line in front of it and another line behind it. The Canadians, who had been taken out of the Somme front a few days after that drive began and by a wide detour of more than fifty miles had been brought up to the Arras front, were supposed by the enemy to be taking a rest, whereas they were sent hurling through the Hindenburg line on August 27 and a rest that alone could stave off disaster. German officers have admitted that the smashing of the lines east of Arras by the Canadians dashed any lingering hopes they had of averting defeat.

The grand work of the Canadians had appreciable results both north and south. It hastened a German retirement from the Lys river salient which already had begun and it speeded up the retirement north of the Somme. On August 29 Bapaume and Combles were taken, Mount

American Artillerymen on the Marne Front.

few days later through the even more powerful Drocourt line. Each of these so-called lines consisted of several series of entrenchments, with elaborate underground tunnels and innumerable redoubts and machine gun posts. The wonderful success of the Canadians, with little or no help from tanks, against the positions relied on by the enemy to check the allied advance, convinced the high German command that it had no artificial defences that could give its overworked armies the Kemmel was abandoned to the British and the enemy was in retreat on the 70 miles of front between Ypres and Peronne. The general situation made it inevitable that the enemy also should withdraw on the 80 miles of front between Peronne and Rheims.

By September 12 it was evident that the Germans were losing ground much faster than they had gained it in the spring campaign. That day was made famous in history by the army of the

A Depth Bomb need not actually hit a submarine to destroy it.

United States launching its first independent offensive effort. The work assigned to it was the elimination of the St. Mihiel salient which had resisted the pressure brought against it by the French during four years of warfare. The salient was in the shape of a foot. It had been there since September, 1914, when German militarism tried to stride across the Meuse south of St. Mihiel and trample over prostrate France. The foot was arrested at St. Mihiel when poised for the next step. The First American Army under General Liggett, acting under the supervision of General Pershing, attacked this salient from the north and from the south, and crushed it in as though it were an eggshell, taking well on to 15,000 prisoners and more than 100 guns. The French troops co-operating with the Americans, took 7,000 prisoners. In August as many as 322,000 American troops landed in France and the number of men available for the front was in the neighborhood of half a million. The wiping out of the St. Mihiel salient permitted General Foch to go on with plans for attacks on the all-important German lateral line of communication running through Sedan and Montmedy or for an attack in Lorraine, south of Metz.

On the day in which the Americans struck first as an independent army, the German Vice-Chancellor, Von Payer, announced that "Strong and courageous in the consciousness of our own invincibility, we laugh at the idea that we should first penitently ask for mercy before we are admitted to peace negotiations." This speech was made to give the allies an idea of the terms the Teutons would want if the allies agreed to the request Austria-Hungary was making at that moment for a peace conference in some neutral country while hostilities continued. The main provision was that Germany should be allowed to retain her conquests in the East while abandoning her spoils in the West and restoring Belgium. A few days later, the Serbians broke the Bulgarian front in

Gen. Allenby commanded victorious British forces in Palestine. General Sir Edmund Henry Hyman Allenby who commanded the British forces that have won successes in the campaign against the Turks in Palestine.

"The Train, Deprived of Its Guiding Hand, Hurtled Along to Its Final Destruction"—a British Aeroplane Attacking An Enemy Supply-Train With Bomb and Machine-Gun. Our daring air-fighters no longer remain always at great heights to attack their objectives, but fly low whenever opportunity offers, and use their machine-guns as well as bombs. One recently attacked an enemy anti-aircraft gun thus. The exploit here illustrated is described as follows: "This incident occurred on the Eastern Front. The illustration shows two naval airmen attacking a train laden with stores. Bombs were dropped from a height of 180 feet, and fell close to one side of the train. The machine then came down to 50 feet, and from this height the observer fired a tray of ammunition into the cab of the engine, killing the driver. The stoker jumped out in panic, and the train, deprived of its guiding hand, hurtled along to its final destruction." Similar feats are frequently performed by our airmen.

AMERICANS COUNTER ATTACKING A GERMAN TRENCH RAID. THE RESULTS WERE FAVORABLE

AMERICANS AT CHATEAU THIERRY. THE ARTILLERY SUPPORTED THE INFANTRY AND MADE THE GREAT VICTORY POSSIBLE

Stretcher-Bearers Bringing Wounded Under Fire From the Enemy.

Macedonia and the British overwhelmed the Turkish army in Palestine. Before October opened Bulgaria, finding Germany was unable to give her help, surrendered unconditionally.

The closing days of September saw allied victories all up and down the western front. Within three days the American forces west of the Meuse smashed forward 10 miles on a 20-mile front; the French to the west of them in the Champagne advanced 7 miles on a 20-mile front, taking 10,000 prisoners; the British on the Cambrai front advanced 7 miles on a 35-mile front, taking 22,000 prisoners and 300 guns, and reaching the outskirts of Cambrai, and the British and Belgians on both sides of Ypres advanced 10 miles on a 20-mile front, capturing Dixmude, Passchendaele, Roulers, Menin and Langemarck, 10,000 prisoners and 100 guns. At that time the enemy was retiring on the whole front between Verdun and Nieuport with the exception of ten miles of front next the coast.

The outlook now became so alarming for Germany that on Saturday, October 5, Germany intimated to President Wilson that she desired an armistice and a peace conference in which the 14 points of President Wilson would be the basis of discussion. The allies saw that Germany preferred to talk rather than to fight and they insisted on Germany binding herself more specifically and also that during negotiations she conduct warfare according to the laws of nations and otherwise give evidence of good faith. In the meantime they redoubled their efforts to destroy the German armies, and on October 8, with the aid of many thousands of American troops, the British crashed through the powerful Hindenburg defences north of St. Quentin and in two days advanced into open country beyond to a depth of 12 miles on a 20-mile front, taking 200 guns and 20,000 prisoners. This success precipitated an enemy retirement from the Chemin des Dames, the Champagne and the northern Argonne. In the north the Canadians captured Cambrai. A few days later new Belgian and British attacks led to the capture of Lille, Ostend, Bruges, Roulers and Menin. Retreating on the south, the enemy surrendered Laon, La Fere and Vouziers.

On October 22, Germany gave the pledges required by the allies and the United States agreed to forward Germany's request for an armistice. Already the allies had redeemed 6,000 square miles of French soil and 900 square miles of Belgian soil. According to one estimate the German and allied offensives in 1918 up to this time, compared as follows:

	German Offensive 119 days March 21-July 18	*Allied Offensive 98 days July 18-Oct. 24*
Ground captured in square miles	2,770	7,300
Guns captured	2,200	4,600
Prisoners taken	200,000	300,000
Casualties inflicted by attacking army	700,000	1,000,000
Casualties suffered by attacking army	1,000,000	700,000

According to this estimate the total allied casualties from March 21, were 1,400,000 and those of the Germans 2,000,000. The allied losses had been made good by the increase of the American forces which now comprised two armies, the Second being under General Bullard. Including troops in training the United States had 2,000,000 men across seas.

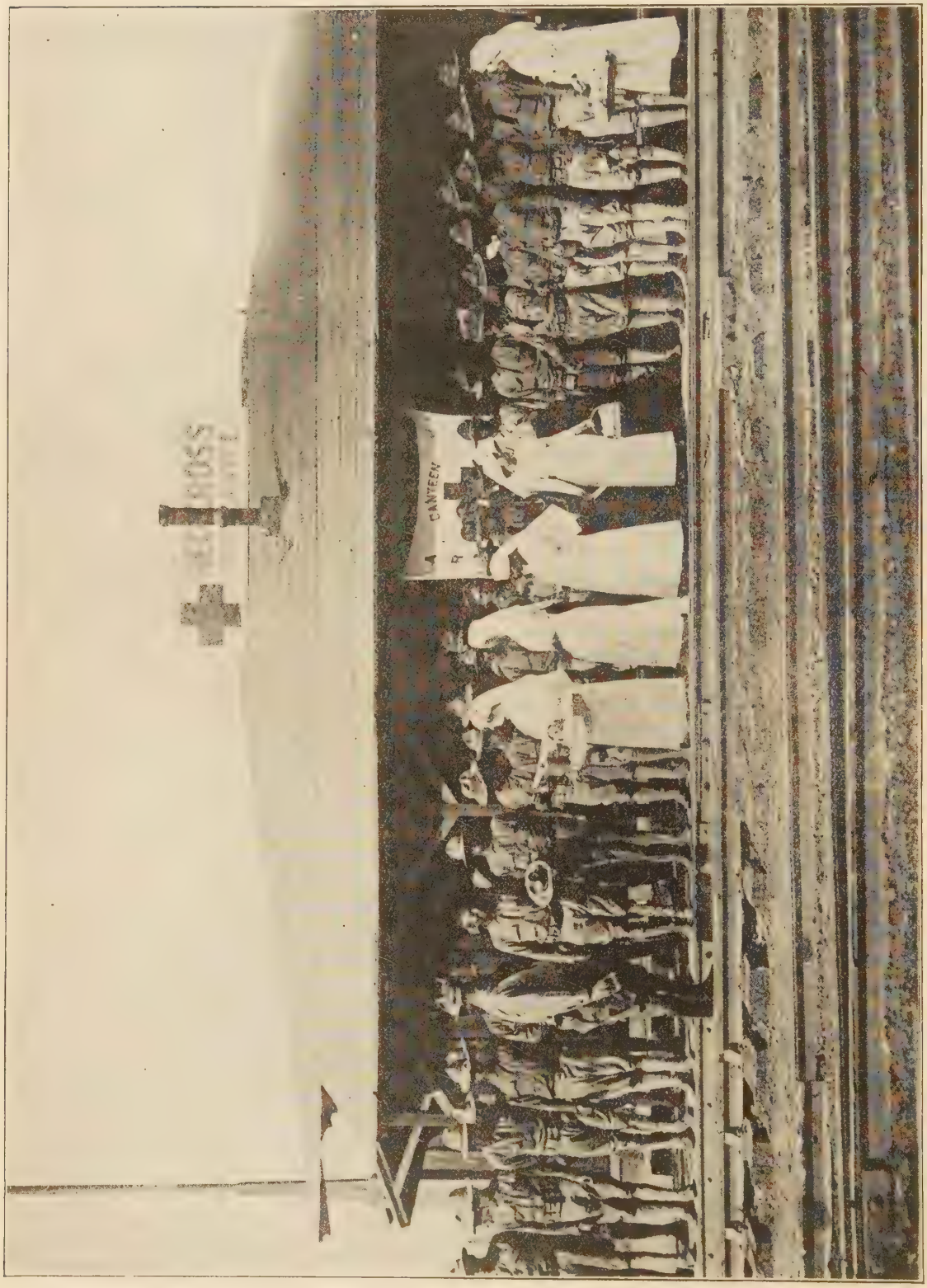
The events during the last week of October suggested that the war was hurrying to an end. The Italians attacked on the Piave front and with British stormtroops and a small American force playing an important role, broke through the Austrian army, capturing 100,000 men and 600 guns, and placing the remainder

Americans in Shell Holes in "No Man's Land," Preparing for the Gas Waves Coming Toward Them.

French entering Village after Armistice locating bomb traps

of the Austrian forces, which were handicapped by revolutions in Bohemia and Jugo-Slavia, at the mercy of the allies. On November 4 the Austrians signed an armistice that represented absolute submission. When this armistice went into effect 1,000,000 Austrians and 6,000 guns —in reality the whole Austrian army— were in the possession of Italy.

During the first week in November the allies dashed forward 11 miles, south of the Dutch frontier, and reached Ghent. One hundred miles away on the southeast the French and Americans did magnificent work. The enemy, in trying to retreat to his own country, had to pass through two "funnels," the one running eastward through Liege and the other southeastward through Sedan and Montmedy. The Ardennes forest and hills lying between these funnels prevented hasty



Colored Troopers Embarking for the Front Are Receiving Refreshments and Tobacco from the Red Cross.

withdrawal there, and the two funnels were quite unequal to the demands made upon them. Matters, therefore, were made doubly critical for the enemy when the Americans advanced 14 miles on a 25-mile front west of the Meuse and reached points only 10 miles from Montmedy and 15 miles from Sedan

Recognizing that the jig was up, Germany on November 8 applied on the battlefield to General Foch for an armistice, as directed to do by President Wilson. This did not put an immediate end to hostilities. The British went on and captured Maubeuge. From Germany came reports that the fleet, as a last resort, had been ordered to give battle to the British grand fleet and that the German crews had mutinied and joined a revolutionary movement that speedily swept over Germany. The Kaiser and Crown Prince had refused to sign documents of abdication but on the advice of their generals had fled from their army headquarters at Spa to Holland where they were interned. Yet still the allied troops pressed on. The French and Americans reached Sedan and Mezieres and got astride one line of retreat. Italian troops, which earlier in the summer had fought in the Rheims salient, captured Rocroi. During the last two days of fighting the allies advanced 15 miles on a front of 100 miles. And then the delegates of revolutionary Germany submitted to the humiliating conditions by which Germany secured exemption from further attack.

It was on the morning of Monday, November 11, that Germany admitted herself beaten and placed herself at the mercy of the allied and associated powers. When the fighting stopped her armies had been forced across the frontier of France on a front of 120 miles stretching southeastward from the North Sea. The enemy still was west of the French border along a stretch of 160 miles. The area he occupied in France then was of varying width embracing about 1,500 square miles. He also retained more than 9,000 square miles in Belgium. Had he not cried quits, however, his armies would have been overwhelmingly defeated within a few weeks, for they were nearly in a helpless condition and Foch had a tremendous offensive in Lorraine south of Metz ready to launch. Monster British airplanes also were under orders to bomb Berlin when orders arrived to cancel all such undertakings. By a peculiar coincidence of history, Canadian troops, acting with the British army, who had taken Denain and Valenciennes, captured Mons the morning that the armistice ended hostilities, thus bringing the British back to the point in Belgium where they began fighting more than four years before.

W. R. P.

Armistice Parties Meeting---Germans Approaching.

This Company in Cantonment Headquarters was Made Up of Good Colored Fighting Men, Who Later Distinguished Themselves on the Marne.

The Aftermath of The Armistice

CHAPTER XIII

ARMISTICE TERMS NOT SEVERE — GERMAN NAVAL SURRENDER IMPOSING SPECTACLE — OCCUPATION OF GERMANY BEGUN — EBERT BECOMES GERMAN LEADER — LLOYD GEORGE SUSTAINED — PRES. WILSON HEARTILY RECEIVED — POLISH INVASION OF GERMANY — LEAGUE OF NATIONS RESOLUTIONS.

The armistice terms imposed on Germany by the allied and associated powers were severe but not more so than was necessary to ensure that Germany should not resist any longer the will of the allies. The most humilating feature was the provision requiring the surrender of the best fighting ships of the German navy without their firing a shot as a protest against the onerous terms of the peace settlement. The world never has witnessed a more pathetic spectacle than that afforded on November 21st, ten days after the signing of the armistice, when fourteen German Dreadnoughts, seven scout cruisers and fifty destroyers steamed across the North Sea under the direction of their own crews and tamely surrendered to the allied fleet fifty miles to the east of the Firth of Forth. These surface warships later were interned in the Scapa Flow, in the Orkney Islands. Almost simultaneously scores of German submarines were surrendered to the British off Harwich. In the course of a few weeks the number was increased to more than 120 and it became known that the number of underwater boats that Germany would be required to give up would exceed the original limit set of 160. Uncompleted submarines and surface warships not being surrendered were required to dismantle and the crews of the latter to be paid off. To see that the terms were thoroughly fulfilled, the British Dreadnought Hercules, accompanied by torpedo boat destroyers, visited the German naval strongholds after the Germans, themselves, had swept away the mine barriers. Of 48 German warships capable of entering the line when war began, Germany was left with only 13, as she had found it necessary to scrap 20 pre-Dreadnoughts after the Battle of Jutland. An additional Dreadnought was given up in December.

The original armistice terms were amended from time to time. In most cases the changes made with each monthly renewal rendered Germany more helpless before the allies. The number of machine guns the enemy had to surrender, however, was reduced by 5,000 to 25,000 and the number of airplanes by 300 to 1,700. The number of motor lorries was reduced from 10,000 to 5,000. The reason for these changes was that the Germans had less equipment than had been estimated. On the other hand the enemy was called upon to turn over 150,000 railway cars or three times the number originally fixed. Without these the German army could not conduct serious military enterprises or the country be fed except by grace of the allies. The allies also stipulated that they should be free to occupy the so-called neutral strip east of the Rhine, north of Mainz, if they so desired, and a small bridgehead east of Strassburg.

On November 14 American and French troops crossed the Lorraine frontier in the rear of the evacuating German forces. Four days later Belgian troops were in Brussels and Antwerp, and French troops in Mulhausen and Colmar. Not a living German soldier remained on French soil with the exception of prisoners. By November 25 British troops had reached Namur in Belgium and all Alforces. Ten days before Christmas the sace-Lorraine had been occupied by allied

Coast Defense. These giant guns guard New York harbor and represent the types used on the entire coast including the Panama Canal. A hostile fleet would be checked miles from our shores

allied troops were safely entrenched in their three great bridgeheads at Cologne, Coblenz and Mainz, the British at Cologne, the Americans at Coblenz and the French at Mainz.

By the end of November a considerable number of Canadian prisoners-of-war had reached Metz from prison camps in the Rhineland. American troops had passed beyond Metz in their movement eastward and joyfully greeted the American and Canadian prisoners whom they had met tramping wearily towards the west. Nearly 18,000 British prisoners had reached England. Of these 8,794 arrived at Hull from Holland; 8,271 at Dover and 500 at London. The British Government sternly warned Germany that she would accept no explanations for the ill-treatment or criminal neglect of the prisoners while on their way to the German border. One wonders what possessed the German rulers that they should show heartlessness towards hundreds of thousands of allied prisoners at the very time that their country needed mercy at the hands of the allied peoples. The explanation under the circumstances probably was stupidity and distraction rather than deliberate cruelty—stupidity because for selfish reasons the Germans should have made the care of their prisoners their first concern; distraction because Germany was in a terrible condition and her new rulers were overwhelmed with the multitude of great tasks requiring urgent attention.

Czecho-Slovaks at Vladivostok ready to leave for the Russian Interior. The armies of the Czecho-Slovaks that attempted to free Siberia from the Bolsheviki.

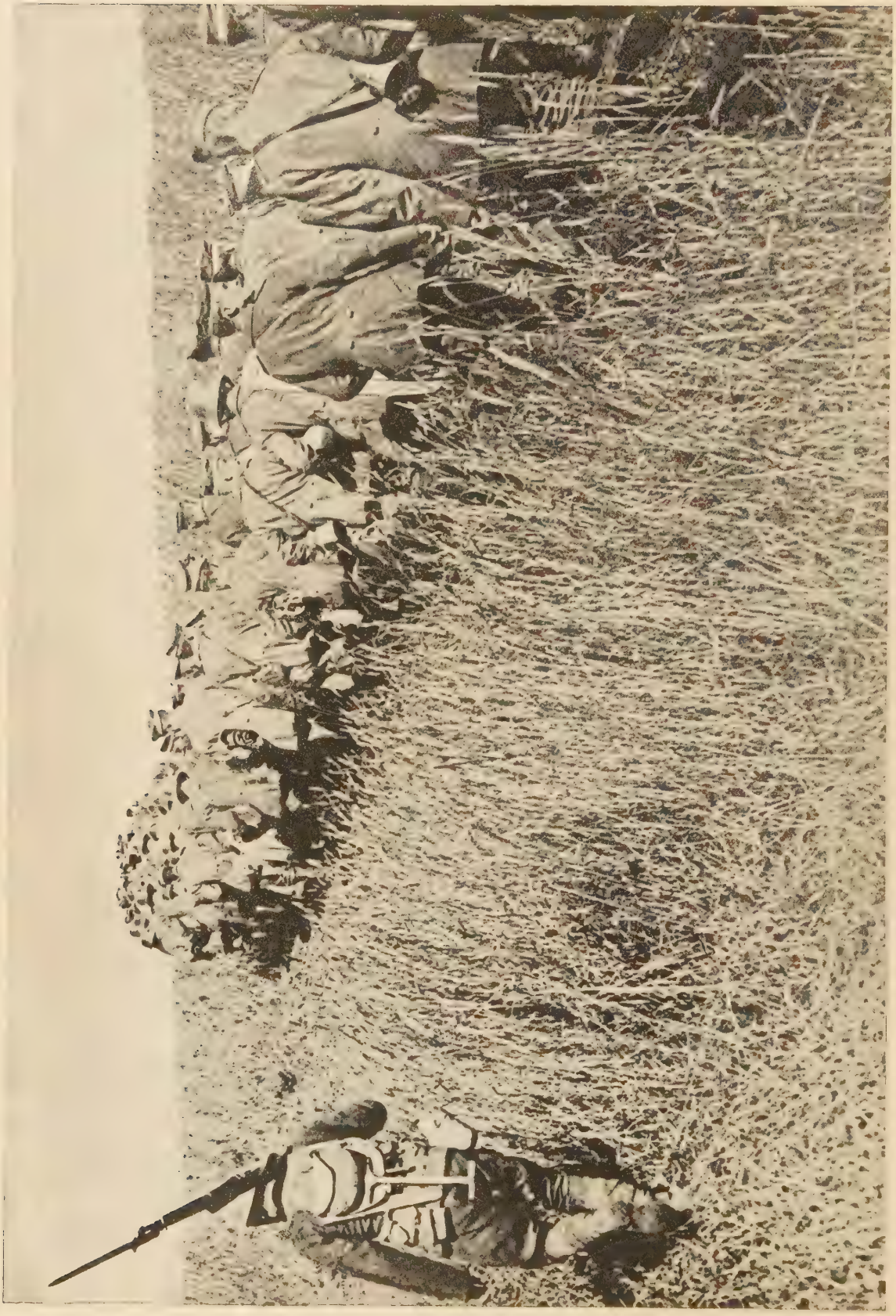
A correspondent with the British forces states that he was in Huy, 12 miles beyond Namur, when the Canadian vanguard entered the place. One of our men was asked where was the front line and answered, "In the centre of the high street, sir." The boys from Canada must have looked with great interest at the forts of Namur, perched on precipitous

"Mut," Dog Carrier, Laden with Cigarettes for the Americans in the Trenches.

cliffs, which quickly succumbed to the fire of the mighty German 42-centimetre howitzers in August of 1914, bringing about the fall of a great bastion in the allied front. It was at Huy, on the south side of the Meuse, that the Germans forced a crossing to the north and began their surprising advance north-westward on Brussels and then south-westward on Lille and Mons, where the British, who awaited them found themselves hopelessly outflanked on the left, their right exposed by the unannounced retirement of the French from Charleroi and their front menaced by forces superior by three to one. All the way up the Sambre and Meuse valleys from Mons to Liege the Canadians met multitudes of allied prisoners pouring homeward from the hateful prison camps of the Hun. The majority of them were French, English, Italian, and Russian soldiers, some of them wearing parts of uniforms of nations other than their own, but here and there, no doubt, the Canadians had the pleasure of greeting a released comrade. All were footsore and weary and some were very bitter over the inhuman treatment of which they had been victims, but their passage through Belgium was made easier by the plaudits and comforts heaped on them by the grateful Belgian people.

The time limit for the evacuation by the Germans of Belgium, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine expired on November 27. All German soldiers not out of those regions by that time were liable to capture and internment. It was amazing, therefore, that the Dutch Government should have allowed 68,000 German troops to pass through the peninsula of Dutch territory that prevented their quick return to their homeland. The excuse that the Belgians wanted to get rid of them and that the Germans were deprived of their arms at the border was not sufficient. Holland was guilty of an unneutral act in allowing troops of a belligerent country to cross her territories to escape the consequences of warfare.

German Cruiser "Zahringen" Passing Through Kiel Canal to Surrender.



One Lone American Soldier is Acting as Guard for the Whole of this Long Column of German Prisoners Who are on Their Way to Prison Camps at the Back of the Allied Lines. The photo was taken during the Battle of Marne.

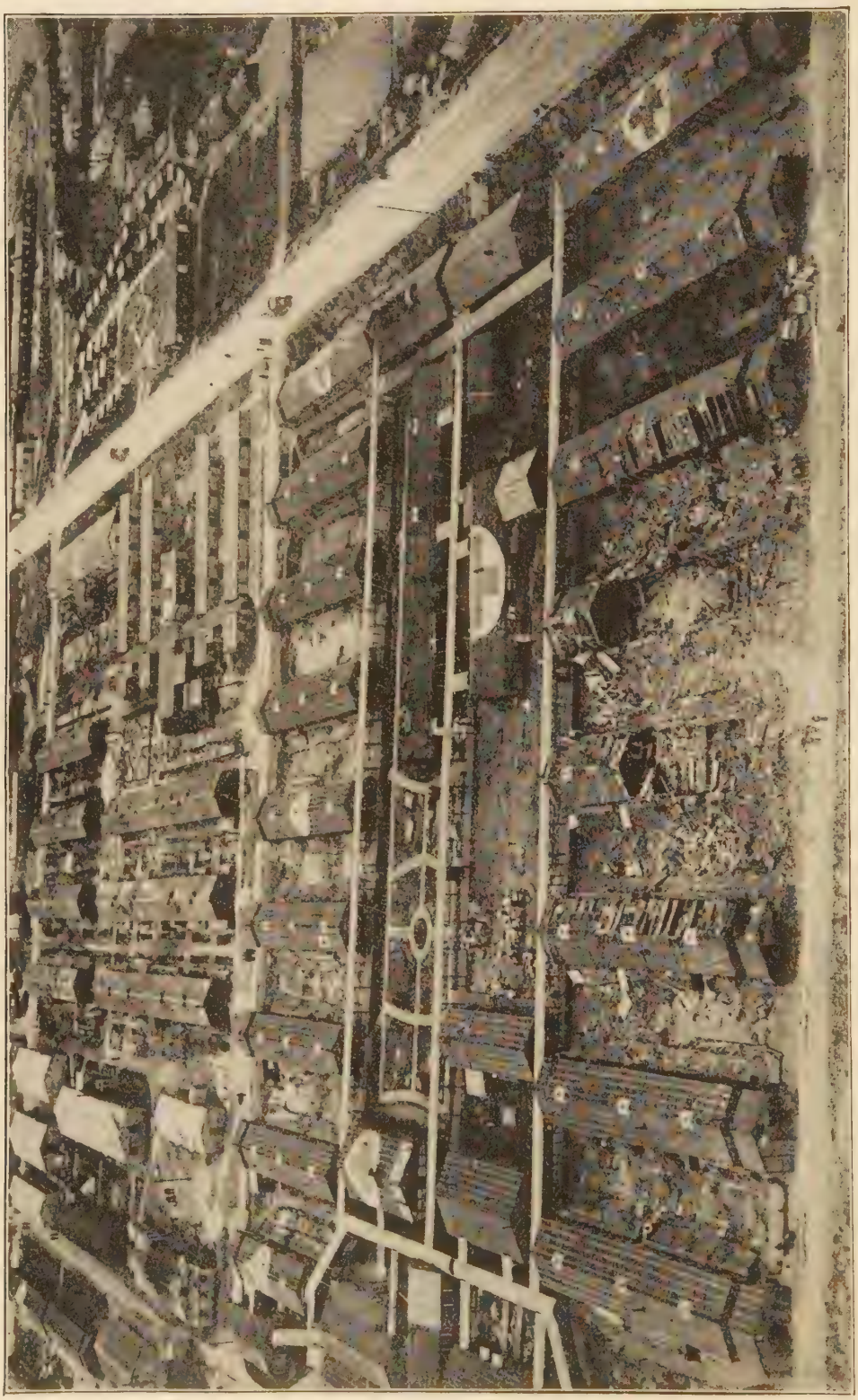
As a consequence she had to agree to allow the allies to send supplies across her territories to the allied army of occupation in Germany.

In Germany serious political trouble developed early in 1919. The Ebert government that had displaced the short-lived government of Prince Maxmilian of Baden, had been composed of three Majority Socialists and three Independent Socialists. The latter resigned or were dismissed from the government and a wing of the Independent Socialists combined with the Spartacans, or German Bolsheviki, and tried to prevent the holding of elections for a National Constituent Assembly. They knew that the vast majority of the people were against them and they attempted to put into operation their view that the manual workers of the country should disenfranchise and despoil all the other citizens of the country. Thousands of men and women were shot down during the disorders in Berlin and elsewhere but finally the government secured the upper hand and the elections were held. In these the Majority Socialists made considerable gains and, although not having a majority of the seats, secured their position as the strongest party in the House.

Knights of Columbus Overseas Relief Hut. This hut is a copy of a relief camp close to the lines, constructed of the driftwood of the battle area. The hinges and latch are made of shoe and harness leather. In it the secretary gives free to American or ally tobacco, cigarettes, chocolate, first aid, etc.

Premier Ebert set forth his position about this time in a striking address to soldiers who had returned to the capital from the front. This is what he said:

"Your deeds and sacrifices are unexampled. No enemy overcame you. Only when the preponderance of our opponents



Red Cross Hospitals Destroyed by German Bombing Raids. No Other Buildings Were Bombed.

in men and material grew ever heavier did we abandon the struggle. You endured indescribable sufferings, accomplished incomparable deeds and gave, year after year, proofs of your unshakeable courage. You protected the homeland from invasion, sheltered your wives, children and parents from flames and slaughter and preserved the nation's workshops and fields from devastation. With deepest emotion the homeland thanks you. You can return with heads erect. Never have men done or suffered more than you.

"The German people have shaken off the old rule. On you, above all others, rests the hope of German freedom. The hard requirements of the victors are heavy upon us but we will not collapse. We will build a new Germany. With the strength and unshakeable courage you have proved a thousand times, see to it that Germany remains united and that the old misery of a system of small states does not overtake us again. The unity of the German nation is a work of religion, of socialism. We must work with all our strength if we are not to sink to the state of a beggar people. You are laying down the arms which, borne by the sons of the people, should never be a danger but only a protection for the people whose happiness your industrious hands must build up from new foundations."

There were few signs of repentance in these words.

Two days before the German general elections were held Dr. Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, the leaders of the Spartacans, were arrested and killed under very suspicious circumstances. Liebknecht was shot down as he was trying to escape and Rosa Luxemburg was taken from her guards and beaten to death. At least that is the official explanation. The circumstances strongly suggest that the officers of the guards connived at their assassination. During the weeks following the deaths of these two leaders comparative quiet prevailed in Germany and the men who had been called the Kaiser-Socialists, because they had voted for war credits and condoned war outrages, remained in power.

Before the Peace Conference assembled general elections also were held in the United Kingdom. Here Lloyd George was overwhelmingly sustained so far as the number of seats was concerned although the popular vote showed that his Coalition government only received 5,028,345 votes against 4,330,600 secured by the anti-Coalition candidates. The old Liberal party of H. H. Asquith was eliminated in this election and the Labor group became strong enough numerically to be entitled to rank as the official Opposition. The election results were a great personal tribute to Lloyd George as the man who had led the British people to victory. They also seemed to indicate that the British people desired that Germany should be made to pay the penalty for her criminal responsibility in beginning the war and waging it with extraordinary barbarism.

In France there were reports that Premier Clemenceau would be outvoted but when he had explained his attitude towards the peace settlement and intervention in Russia he scored a great triumph in the House, his budget going through with a majority of 246.

The visit of President Wilson to Europe to attend the Peace Conference caused controversies both at home and abroad as to the wisdom of this unprecedented move but the heartiness of his reception in the various capitals before the Conference met seemed to indicate that the masses largely were in sympathy with his dream of establishing peace on a permanent basis. Later on his work in behalf of the League of Nations further justified his prolonged absence from Washington.

Pending the decisions of the Peace Conference, Jugo-Slavia and Czecho-Slovakia set themselves up as indepen-

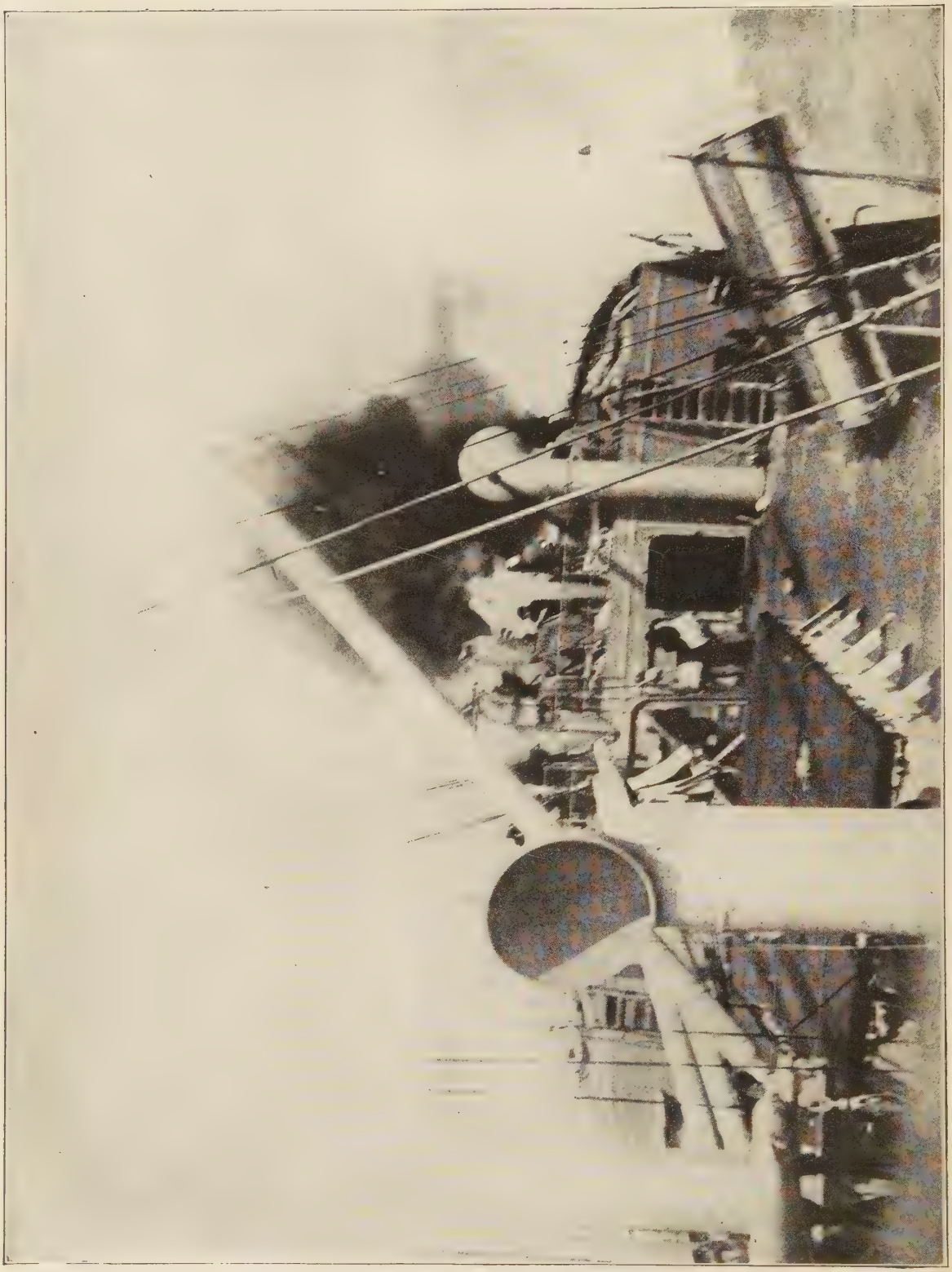
dent states and the troops of both clashed with Italian forces, particular those of Jugo-Slavia in Dalmatia which had been promised to Italy when she entered the war on the side of France and Britain but which was populated mainly by Slavs. The Czecho-Slovaks also clashed with the Germans on the west and the Poles on the north, while Lemberg changed hands more than once as Poles fought bitterly with the Ruthenians of the surrounding country. In German Poland, fighting took place between Poles and Germans and east of Poland the army of the Russian Bolshevik government advanced westward for nearly two hundred miles, boasting as they came that they would overrun all Europe and tear up any peace treaty the allies might dictate. The allied nations became much perplexed as to the course to take towards the Russian Bolshevik government as their peoples had had enough of war without interfering in purely Russian affairs, and so at the suggestion of Premier Borden of Canada they invited the Bolsheviki and all the other Russian factions to meet in conference on the Princes' Islands near Con-

Battleship Missouri passing through the Panama Canal.

Interallied Naval Leaders at Versailles—Front row left to right: Admiral Sims, America; George Dygues, French Secretary of Navy; Admiral Wemyss, England, and Di Rivell, Italy.

TRAINED DOGS BRINGING UP AMMUNITION TO THE FRENCH FRONT LINE TRENCHES.

THE FIRST AMERICANS IN PARIS ON THEIR WAY TO TRAINING TRENCHES IN FRANCE

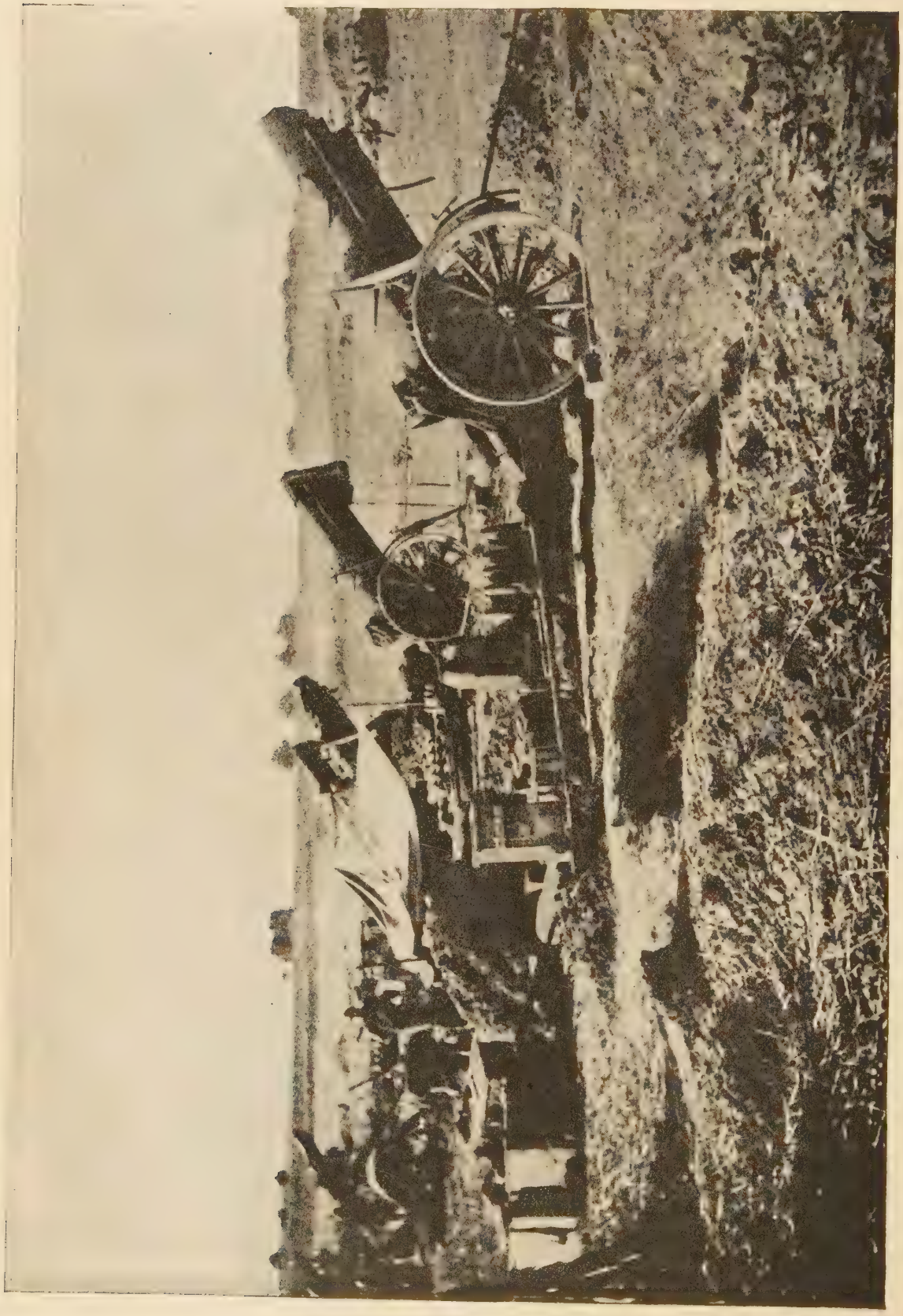


The Most Remarkable Photograph Produced by the War. Torpedoed! This unique photo was taken by an amateur aboard the ship at the moment she was hit by a torpedo fired from an enemy submarine.

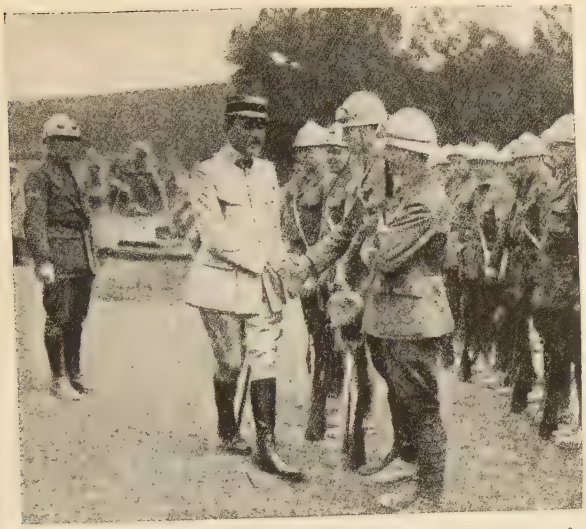
stantinople in the sea Marmora.

A great political figure in the war, one better known to Europe than to this continent, passed off the scene early in 1919 in the person of Count Von Hertling. This man was Chancellor of Germany, a position equivalent to that of Premier, but vested with greater powers, from November of 1917 to October of 1918. In other words, he controlled Germany's destinies from the time the colossal disaster to the Italian armies took place until the counter-offensive of General Foch forced Germany to seek an armistice on the western front. Before and after he became Chancellor he did his best to cause dissension between the allies and to trap them into peace discussions. He professed to favor peace without annexations or indemnities but in February of 1918 he put the screws on Russia and Rumania, stripped them of territory and economic independence and made them Germany's vassals. In his day he taught the divine right of military officers as well as the divine right of kings and absolute submission to religious authority. He pretended that Britain was waging the war for selfish purposes in which she was making a tool of France, and that Germany in resisting the growing power of the United States, was really the champion of all Europe. Von Hertling formerly was Premier of Bavaria and was a Roman Catholic. He displaced Michaelis as Chancellor, Michaelis being a bureaucratic stop-gap. Von Hertling was chosen to succeed Michaelis because it was hoped he would detach the Centre or Clerical party from the Majority Parties who were demanding a democratic peace and because he was influential with the Vatican and likely to check the tendency of Bavaria to break away from Prussia. More than once he said that the question of Alsace-Lorraine was the only barrier to peace. He favored adding Lorraine to Prussia and Alsace to Bavaria, but was bitterly opposed to returning the Provinces to France. He did not give up his office as Chancellor until Prince Maximilian assumed power on behalf of the revolution. Prince Maximilian shortly thereafter became Prince Regent and left the Chancellorship to Ebert, who was termed premier.

Barbed Wire Entanglements Failed to Stop Our Boys in the Great Drive. Americans Are Here Seen Going Through German Wire.



Heavy Guns at Chateau-Thierry Made Victory Possible.



French general thanking the American soldiers for their bravery under fire.

The death of Colonel Roosevelt synchronised with that of Von Hertling and removed a warm friend of Great Britain and one who never ceased to champion the justice of the allied cause in the war. It cannot be said that the United States would not have intervened without the stimulating effect of "Teddy's" propaganda, for President Wilson secured a free hand when he was returned to power as the man who had kept his country out of the great struggle. Nevertheless, the writings and speeches of Colonel Roosevelt were a real factor in convincing the best elements in the United States that their country should throw all her resources into the scales against Germanic barbarism. So far as the military aspect of the allied cause is concerned the allies had no stouter champion. Perhaps the redoubtable colonel was too virile or too domineering a character to subscribe to the idealistic features of the allied cause. He probably believed that mankind gained something out of the rivalry and strife between nations and that life would become too insipid were a League of Peace to straighten out all serious international disputes without recourse to arms. In one sense the Colonel belonged to the old school. He was a true friend, a formidable foe and a man of honor. He represented the best type of statesmen in the days when rivalry between nations was keenest. It cannot be said that he was peculiarly adapted for the work of laying a new foundation for the society of nations based on co-operation for the good of all.

On Saturday, January 18, the first session of the Peace Conference was held in Paris. Forty-eight years previously, at Versailles, just outside Paris, the German Empire was proclaimed by the victorious King of Prussia, following the war of 1870. The Peace Conference of 1919 was called to determined the conditions ending The Great War and to veto the treaty of Versailles, restore Alsace-Lorraine to its rightful owner and write "Finis" across the inglorious history of the German Empire.

The first series of resolutions adopted by the Conference were as follows:
On the League of Nations.

"That it is essential to the maintenance of the world settlement which the Associated Nations are now met to establish that a League of Nations be created to promote international obligations and provide safeguards against war. This league should be created as an integral part of the general treaty of peace, and should be open to every civilized nation which can be relied on to promote its objects.

"The members of the league should periodically meet in international conference, and should have a permanent organization and secretaries to carry on the business of the league in the intervals between the conferences.

"The Conference, therefore, appoints a committee representative of the Associated Governments to work out the details of the constitution and the functions of the league."
On Responsibility.

"That a commission composed of two representatives apiece from the five Great Powers and five representatives to be elected by the other powers be appointed

to enquire and report upon the following:

"First—The responsibility of the authors of the war;

"Second—The facts as to breaches of the laws and customs of war committed by the forces of the German Empire and their allies on land, on sea, and in the air during the present war;

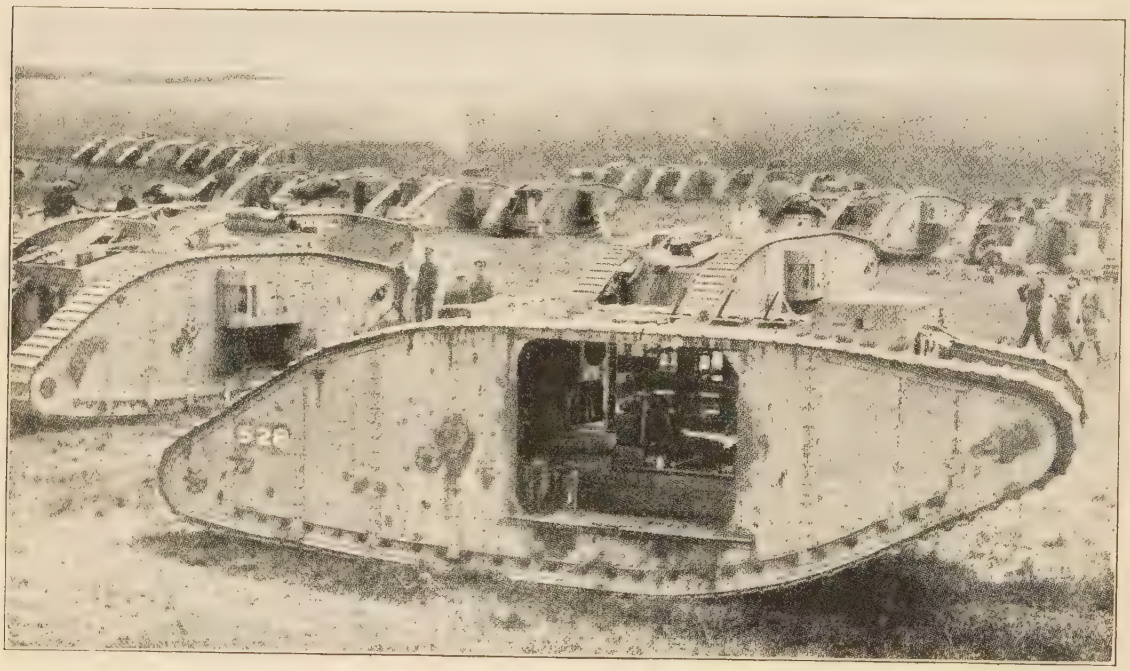
"Third—The degree of responsibility for these offences attaching to particular members of the enemy's forces, including members of the general staffs and other individuals, however highly placed;

Great Powers and not more than two representatives apiece from Belgium, Greece, Poland, Roumania and Serbia, to examine and report:

"First, on the amount of reparation which the enemy countries ought to pay; second, on what they are capable of paying, and, third, on the method, the form and time within which payment should be made."

On International Legislation.

"That a commission composed of two representatives apiece from the five Great



Looking at First Sight Like a Group of Antediluvian Monsters Squatting in the Open Before Starting on Their Prowl. At a "Tankdrome" on the Cambrai Front.

"Fourth—The constitution and procedure of a tribunal appropriate to the trial of these offences;

"Fifth—Any other matters cognate or ancillary to the above which may arise in the course of the enquiry, and which the commission finds it useful and relevant to take into consideration."

On Reparation.

"That a commission be appointed which shall comprise not more than three representatives apiece from each of the five Powers and five representatives to be elected by the other powers represented at the Peace Conference be appointed to enquire into the conditions of employment from international aspect and to consider the international means necessary to secure common action on matters affecting conditions of employment and to recommend the form of a permanent agency to continue such enquiry and consideration, in co-operation with and under the direction of the League of Nations."

On International Control.

"That a commission composed of two representatives apiece from the five Great Powers and five representatives to be appointed by the other powers enquire and report upon the international regime for ports, waterways and railways."

The delegates of the Great Powers on the Committee to plan for the League of Nations were: For the United States, President Wilson and Col. Edward M. House; Great Britain, Lord Robert Cecil and Gen. Jan Christian Smuts; France, Leon Bourgeois and Ferdinand Larnaude, dean of the Faculty of Law of the University of Paris; for Italy, Premier Orlando and Vitterio Scialioa; Japan, Viscount Chinda and K. Ochiai.

France, Britain, the United States, Italy and Japan were given five representatives each in the Peace Congress. The British dominions were represented apart from Great Britain, Canada, Australia, South Africa and India each being allowed two representatives. The size of the representation of each nation was decided upon not, as proposed by the French plan, in accordance with the part played by the nation in the war, but following the American and British plan, in proportion to the extent of the interest of each nation in the peace settlement. Brazil, Belgium and Serbia were given three representatives. Greece, Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Roumania and China were assigned two representatives each. Portugal, and the states which did not declare war upon Germany but merely broke off diplomatic relations with her, were given one delegate each. Brazil owes her treatment to her historic position as a former empire and her population of more than twenty millions which worked against placing her secondary to nations much less peopled.

W. R. P.

One of the various kinds of machine guns that were used against the Germans on the Western Front. This gun was invented by an American.

Photo of the Blowing Up of Railroads in Belgium by Retreating Germans.

The Price of Victory

CHAPTER XIV

A COLOSSAL TOLL — LARGE PERCENTAGE OF LIVES LOST — HALF OF ENLISTED NUMBER WOUNDED OR KILLED — VALUE OF DESTROYED PROPERTY ENORMOUS — TOTAL WAR DEBT IMMENSE — LOSSES IN SHIPPING TONNAGE — RUSSIAN PROBLEM — VICTORY DUE TO COMBINED AID.

The terrible price paid by humanity in blood and tears and money to save Civilization from the Hun cannot be told in words. The struggle was of so colossal a nature, spread over so wide an area and affected human life in such a multitude of ways that it is impossible to record with any degree of accuracy or in great detail the sum total of misery that it entailed. Most of the estimates of the number of soldiers who died from wounds and disease are under rather than over the actual figures. It is an extremely conservative estimate that eleven million men in uniform lost their lives, that civilians to a number almost equally large were massacred or died from famine and want, and that many other millions of potential lives were lost. As to the money cost of the war, a rough and ready way of putting it is to say that it used up more than one-third of all the wealth of the world.

Combining official with semi-official and unofficial statements we get the following estimate of the numbers of men enlisted, the lives lost and the total casualties of the principal belligerent countries:

	Men Enlisted	Lives Lost	Total Casualties
United States	3,764,700	72,738	262,693
British Empire	10,000,000	975,000	3,049,991
France	7,000,000	1,500,000	4,500,000
Italy	5,000,000	500,000	1,500,000
Russia	14,000,000	3,000,000	8,000,000
Belgium	500,000	100,000	350,000
Serbia	500,000	125,000	375,000
Rumania	600,000	150,000	400,000
Total for Allies	41,364,700	6,422,738	18,437,684
Germany	12,000,000	2,750,000	8,500,000
Austria-Hungary	7,500,000	1,750,000	5,000,000
Turkey	1,750,000	300,000	1,000,000
Bulgaria	1,100,000	200,000	550,000
	22,350,000	5,000,000	15,050,000
Total for all belligerents	63,714,700	11,422,738	33,487,684

The casualties of the Canadian forces, which were included in the above totals for the British empire are officially given as follows:

	Officers	Other Ranks	Total
Killed in action	1,842	33,824	35,666
Died of wounds	614	11,806	12,420
Died of disease	220	5,185	5,405
Wounded	7,130	148,659	155,799
Prisoners of war	.....	.....	3,575
Presumed dead	142	4,529	4,671
Missing	41	384	425
Deaths in Canada	.....	.....	2,221
Totals	9,989	204,397	220,182

The total deaths were 60,383.

The Australian losses were slightly heavier than those of Canada although the Commonwealth's population is much smaller.

The casualties for the United States are given as follows:

Killed in action	28,363
Died of wounds	12,101
Died of disease	16,034
Died from other causes	1,980
Missing in action	14,260
Total dead for U. S.	72,738
Wounded slightly	92,036
Wounded	43,168
Wounded severely	54,751
Total U. S. wounded	189,955
Total U. S. casualties	262,693

The number of men in the British navy who lost their lives was 33,361. The number in the British merchant marine which were lost totalled 14,661, making a grand total of 48,002 British lives lost at sea.

The British casualties in the various arenas were made up thus:

Arena	Total Casualties	No. Dead	Percentage of dead in total losses
France and Belgium	2,070,000	560,000	20
Dardanelles	119,000	33,000	28
Mesopotamia	97,000	31,000	30
Egypt and Palestine	58,000	16,000	27
Macedonia	27,000	7,600	28
East Africa	17,000	9,100	51
Italy	6,700	1,020	15

The above figures for the western arena do not include the missing or the dead who died from wounds sometime after being wounded.

Bulgaria claimed her losses reached the amazing figure of 1,353,000 made up as follows:

Killed	101,000
Wounded	1,152,000
Prisoners	100,000
Total	1,353,000

This total was easily double that of most estimates. The number of wounded also showed an unusually high rate as compared with the number of dead. Bulgaria's casualties in The Great War probably were under 600,000.

The war expenditures of the various belligerents have been estimated as follows:

Britain	$ 60,000,000,000
United States	50,000,000,000
Russia	30,000,000,000
France	40,000,000,000
Italy	15,000,000,000
Rumania	3,000,000,000
Serbia	2,000,000,000
Total Expenditures by Allies	$200,000,000,000
Germany	$ 52,000,000,000
Austria-Hungary	30,000,000,000
Turkey	5,000,000,000
Bulgaria	3,000,000,000
Total Germanic Expenditures	$110,000,000,000
Expended by all belligerents on the war	$310,000,000,000

In nearly every case the war debt of the belligerents involves interest charges of from two to three times the government revenue before the war. The 1919 French budget called for an expenditure three and a half times greater than the pre-war expenditures or for an amount supposed to be equal to one-half of all the earnings of the French people for the

year. The billions of dollars Germany has to pay in reparation of course should be added, properly speaking, to the German cost of the war.

During the great allied offensive on the western front in 1918, the allied armies captured 362,355 prisoners, including 7,990 officers, as well as 6,217 cannon, 38,622 machine guns and 3,907 mine throwers, or more than one-third of the enemy's artillery.

The allies during the month of October captured 108,343 prisoners, including 2,472 officers, as well as 2,064 cannon, 13,639 machine guns, and 1,193 mine throwers. The American forces in France during the strenuous campaign of 1918 captured 44,000 Germans and 1,400 guns.

The official British figures of air fighting upon the British Western front from January 1, 1918, to the date of the armistice show that the number of enemy machines destroyed in aerial combats by the British totalled 3,060, while enemy machines driven down out of control numbered 1,174. Germany is known to have lost well over six thousand airplanes destroyed and surrendered during the year. On the other hand, the resources of the allies were reinforced by 1,700 German machines of modern type and in good serviceable condition.

Great Britain was pre-eminent in the air at the close of the war, when the British air force was the largest in the world. In August, 1914, the British naval and military air services together mustered planes, 45 seaplanes and 7 airships, while at the close of hostilities she had 21,000 airplanes, 1,300 seaplanes and 103 airships. Besides this there were 25,000 airplanes and seaplanes being built and 55,000 airplane engines under contract.

In this photograph are seen the American Artillery before Metz, the capital of Alsace, firing into the German lines.

American Poles March to the Front in France.—The regiment was raised and trained in the United States and all the men and officers are citizens of the United States.

In 1914, 45 bombs were dropped on Paris. In 1915, 70 bombs, 62 of them on March 20, fell on the city. In 1916, the 185 officers and 1,853 men of other ranks. In November, 1918, there were 30,000 officers, 264,000 men. At the outbreak of the war Great Britain had 166 air- enemy employed 61 bombs against Paris, and in 1917, 11. During the last ten months of the war there were 1,211 casualties from 396 bombs. Airplanes and Zeppelins dropped 228 bombs on August 6, killing two persons and injuring 392. The long-range cannon fired 168 shells into Paris, killing 196 and wounding 417. On Good Friday, 1918, more than 100 persons were killed.

Trophies Captured by the Americans from the Huns at the Battle of Leichfrey. Among the other trophies in the picture may be seen a Boche gun, gas mask, wire-cutter and canteen.

British merchant tonnage losses were 9,031,828 gross tons from the beginning of the war to Oct. 31, 1918. New construction in the United Kingdom in the same period was 4,342,296; purchases abroad were 530,000 tons and enemy tonnage captured was 716,520. The net loss was 3,443,012 tons. In the last seven months of the war the output exceeded the world's losses by more than 1,000,000 tons. In the case of Great Britain, although the output had not overtaken the losses, yet if purchases abroad were taken into account, the losses of the last five months were balanced by the gains.

The losses in merchant vessels by enemy action and marine risk from the beginning of the war to the end of October, 1918, was 15,053,786 gross tons. In the same period 10,849,527 tons were constructed and 2,392,675 tons of enemy vessels captured. This makes the net loss of tonnage during the war 1,811,584 tons. One hundred and two ocean going steamships of 330,336 gross tons, were built by American shipyards during November. In addition 63 smaller vessels of 18,108 gross tons were constructed during the same period.

The triumphant close of the war waged on behalf of civilization by the allies provided enough glory to go all around. Each of the allied nations could afford to show a generous appreciation of the part played by the others. The truth is that individually all of the five first-class powers that fought on the side of the allies rendered service that was essential to the final success. These five included Russia, which made a most valuable contribution until she broke under the terrific strain of war. Several small powers rendered most valuable service. For instance, Belgium, whose little army for a brief period stayed the advance of the German hordes and gave the British and French a chance to assemble their forces. Rumania and Serbia also interfered so seriously with the enemy's plans as to attract the attention of large Teutonic forces which might have been used elsewhere with great effect. Had the British Empire, France, Russia, Italy or the United States not participated in the struggle, had any of them failed to give the help they afforded, it is hard to see how Germany would have been brought to her knees by the fall of 1918. It is by no means certain that the non-participation of any one of them would not have permitted the Central Powers to acquire greater prestige as a result of the conflict.

At present Russia is under a cloud. The allied peoples feel that she treacherously deserted them in a crisis, imperilling their victory, increasing their sacrifices and prolonging the war. That feeling is natural and justifiable. Never-

theless, it is a fact that the educated and business classes in Russia bitterly deplore the degradation of their country and are the most unfortunate victims of the rule of the Bolshevik. The masses of the people, ignorant, easily duped, grief-stricken with their losses in the fighting, on the verge of starvation, freed from the despotism of Czarism only to pass under the hateful despotism of Bolshevikism, are bewildered and distracted and groping blindly towards the light. What Russia has done she did not mean to do. Russia will emerge from the bog and the blackness and take a leading place among the great democratic nations. To-day she is to be pitied much more than she is to be condemned. To-morrow, for our own sake as well as for hers, we must aid her to the full extent of our ability. In the meantime, we should recognize that when the war began the great military power of the allied side was not Britain, France or Italy, but Russia, slow-moving but terrible in her might; that the enemy planned to overthrow the French and British in 1914 so that he would be able to cope in 1915 with the deadlier peril on the east; that Russia struck in East Prussia during August of the first year of war and caused the enemy to rail enough divisions from the west to permit the allies to win the first battle of the Marne —the only truly decisive battle in the war; that Russia struck again in 1916 when Italy was hard pressed, won tremendous victories and brought appreciable relief to the Italians, and that in 1917, after the revolution, Kerensky succeeded in inducing the Russian army to undertake an offensive which had magnificent success until treachery developed at one part of the front. Russia quit because her morale was broken and because her people, having rid themselves of the Czar, thought the war in which the Czar had taken them should come to an end. It is not unreasonable to assume that Russia inflicted one-third of the casualties suffered by the enemy powers in the war and endured as many casualties as the total suffered by Britain and France, or about eight millions.

American officers examining captured German howitzer. Officers of the 26th Division examining a German 210 howitzer captured by the 102nd Infantry, 26th Division in France.

Gen. Plumer Reviews His Yanks at the Front. Gen. Plumer is seen in this photo reviewing his own "Yanks" who participated in the big British offensive.

The part played by Italy is much underrated. In 1915 the British and French were almost helpless before the enemy's fortified line in the west and in

the east the German army was riding roughshod over Russia. The intervention of Italy drew half a million of the enemy to the south-western arena, and may have prevented the loss of the war then and there. Italy's casualties are one-third of those suffered by all the nations of the British Empire. She certainly inflicted much heavier casualties on the Central Powers.

There is no occasion to emphasize the essential part paid by France in the war. In proportion to population and wealth France's sacrifices are much greater than those suffered by any other allied power, and the damage to her richest industrial areas runs up into the billions.

The aid given by the United States was of the utmost value in hastening the end of the war. The issue in this year's campaign was whether the allies should win the war at an early date or suffer such a disaster as would protract the war for years. The speeding-up of the shipment of American troops when the scales were in the balance enabled the allies to frustrate the enemy's designs and by releasing veteran French troops from quiet sectors and by providing good American shock troops in the later stages of the campaign, brought Germany to her knees. The low casualties suffered by the millions of the American armies, but one-twelfth of those of the British Empire, do not adequately represent the exceedingly valuable contribution of the United States. In financing the allies when Britain's resources were sorely tried and in supplying devices for curbing the enemy's submarine activities which at times were greatly worrying the British authorities, the United States gave invaluable help.

As in the Napoleonic wars a hundred years ago Britain was the mainstay of the forces of liberty. During the struggle her military power caught up with and passed well beyond that of France. Without the aid of her armies, or the work of protection and supply so gallantly performed by her mighty navy, or the self-sacrificing performances of her merchant marine, or her loans of billions of dollars to weaker allies, the cause of humanity would have been defeated During the war the United Kingdom provided no less than eight million men and her Dominions overseas and India raised another two millions.

Photo showing lone French solidier in an enemy's trench signaling to his comrades.

W. R. P.

How The Central Powers Fell

CHAPTER XV

GERMANY WEAKENS — BULGARIA SURRENDERS — TURKEY SURRENDERS — AUSTRIAN ARMISTICE AND SURRENDER FOLLOW — GERMANY SIGNS ARMISTICE — KAISER ABDICATES AND FLEES — MILITARY AND NAVAL FORCES SURRENDER — ALLIES OCCUPY GERMANY — CASUALTIES.

The iron defense of the Central Powers and their allies once pierced, the collapse of the coalition came with a swiftness which surprised even the most optimistic among the councillors and leaders of the entente nations and the United States. And strangely enough, while the eyes of the world were turned toward the great struggle in France, where it was believed the issue would be settled, the first breaks which brought the end came from all the other fronts. Within six weeks after the first hint had come that the hour of victory was about to strike, the war was ended. In the chronological order in which they were forced out of the war, the Teutonic allies surrendered as follows:

BULGARIA—Armistice signed just before midnight on September 29th, 1918.

TURKEY—Armistice went into effect in the afternoon of October 31st.

AUSTRIA—Armistice, signed on November 3rd, went into effect in the afternoon of November 4th.

GERMANY—Armistice went into effect 11 o'clock A. M., November 11th.

Bulgaria, the little autocracy in the Balkans, whose czar had heeded the promises made by Germany of a large share in the territorial loot of conquest, was the first to surrender. Driven back, then crushed, the first of the Allied invading army on his own soil, Czar Ferdinand was quick to sue for peace. His people never had favored the war. The Kaiser had withdrawn nearly all of the German troops which had supported the Bulgarians. Even the Austrian troops, menaced earlier in the summer by the Italian campaign which had cleaned them out of the greater part of Albania, had withdrawn from the Macedonian front. Bulgaria fought it out alone.

About the middle of September the Allies' lines extended from Saloniki on the east to southern Albania where they were in contact with the Italian forces. Under Gen. Franchet d'Esperey, a force of French, British, Italians, Serbs and Greeks began the drive northward. To the Serbs fell the honor of the first victories. They were advancing to hurl the enemy from their native land and supported by French and Greek units, they drove northeast of Monastir. Victory was almost immediate. The first day of the drive the Serbs advanced several miles and freed scores of villages. Within a few days they were threatening the chief railroads and lines of communication and the Bulgar right was nearly cut off.

On September 24th, Prilep, one of the chief bases of the enemy, was taken and the Bulgars faced annihilation. So rapid had their retreat been, that Prilep was entered by French cavalry operating far in advance of the main French and Serbian forces. In the meantime the British and Greek army operating in the Lake Doiran region, had advanced and had effected a juncture with the French and

Serbians and a united attack moved rapidly toward the Bulgarian border itself. Within two days more the Bulgarian army had been split into several groups and each one of these was in flight. The government at Sofia admitted they were facing disaster. Far in the vanguard—fighting their way back home—the Serbs pursued the fleeing Bulgars across trackless mountain wastes and through the once cultivated valleys that had been laid waste by war. On September 25th, the British reached Bulgarian soil opposite Kosturino and the next day Strumnitza fell. The Serbs now were well toward the great Bulgarian base of Uskub and Ferdinand's troops were fleeing in disorder, hopelessly beaten.

Nothing could save Sofia from possible bombardment and the Bulgarian government sought peace. A commission bearing the white flag of surrender entered the allied lines. The Allied commanders left Gen. d'Esperey to impose the terms. The Bulgarians submitted to unconditional surrender. They agreed to evacuate all territory they still held in Greece and Serbia, to completely demobilize their army; to give up all their railroads, and, what was most important of all, to allow the Allied forces a free passage through Bulgaria.

Thus was the first big gap cut into the Berlin to Bagdad project. The road to Vienna was open. Austria was in what was almost a panic and Vienna signified willingness to discuss peace, though holding to the statement that they would stand by Germany on terms. The stock market in Berlin felt the effects of the Bulgarian disaster and in both Berlin and Vienna the socialists began open discussion of constitutional reforms. The Teutonic Alliance was crumbling. With Bulgaria out and the Macedonian region free from danger, the Allies could now turn their attention to Constantinople from the north while the British were advancing through the Holy Land on the south. Serbia was being evacuated and Austria would soon be attacked from across the

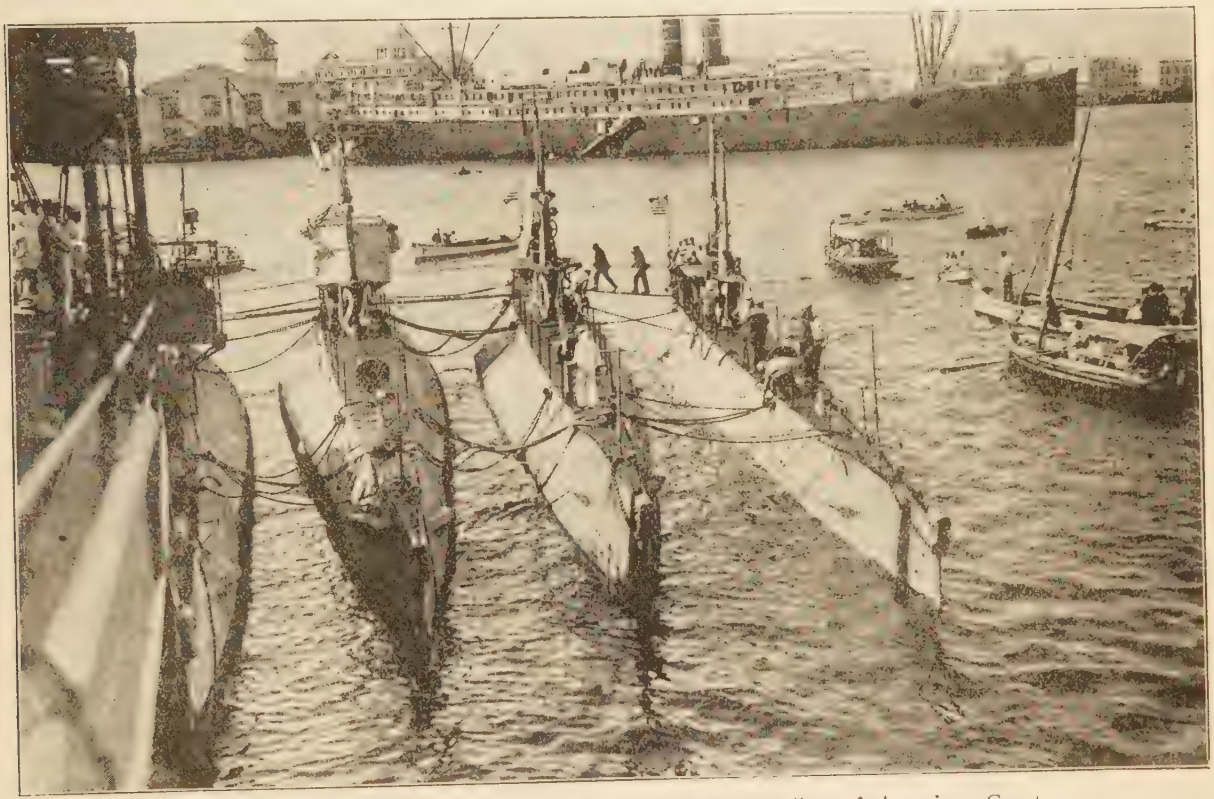
Frank Mayo, Rear Admiral, United States Navy.

Danube. King Ferdinand of Bulgaria had abdicated in favor of his son, Boris, and the Allies were in control of the Balkans.

The developments in the Balkans had surprised the Allies, but the victories in the Orient and the smashing of the Turks came with even greater suddenness. Since his occupation of Jerusalem, Gen. Allenby, with a force of British and Indian troops, reinforced by French and friendly Arab tribesmen, had moved slowly northward until in the latter part of September they occupied a line from the River Jordan westward to the Mediterranean. The great stroke was delivered on September 18th, 19th, 20th and 21st. Over a front of sixteen miles Gen. Allenby struck the Turkish forces and in less than a day they were fleeing in full rout. They pushed through between Rafat and the sea for nineteen miles on the first day and took

3,000 prisoners. Bodies of cavalry were advancing so rapidly that they threatened to completely cut off the Turks' retreat. Railway communications were cut and the Turkish forces were trapped. Huge stores of guns and supplies were taken and the Turk dead blocked the roadways. Caught in the valleys and lowlands, they were at the mercy of the British artillery, and airplanes, flying at low altitudes, raked the fleeing forces with machine gun fire.

By September 25th, British cavalry had pressed along the coast for sixty miles and taken Haifa and Acre, two important ports. Step by step the Allies were rushing forward along the entire line, practically without opposition except from straggling bodies of the routed enemy, and the prisoners now numbered nearly 50,000. The Fourth Turkish army also had been caught in the trap and surrounded. The British had advanced to the sea of Galilee which region they now



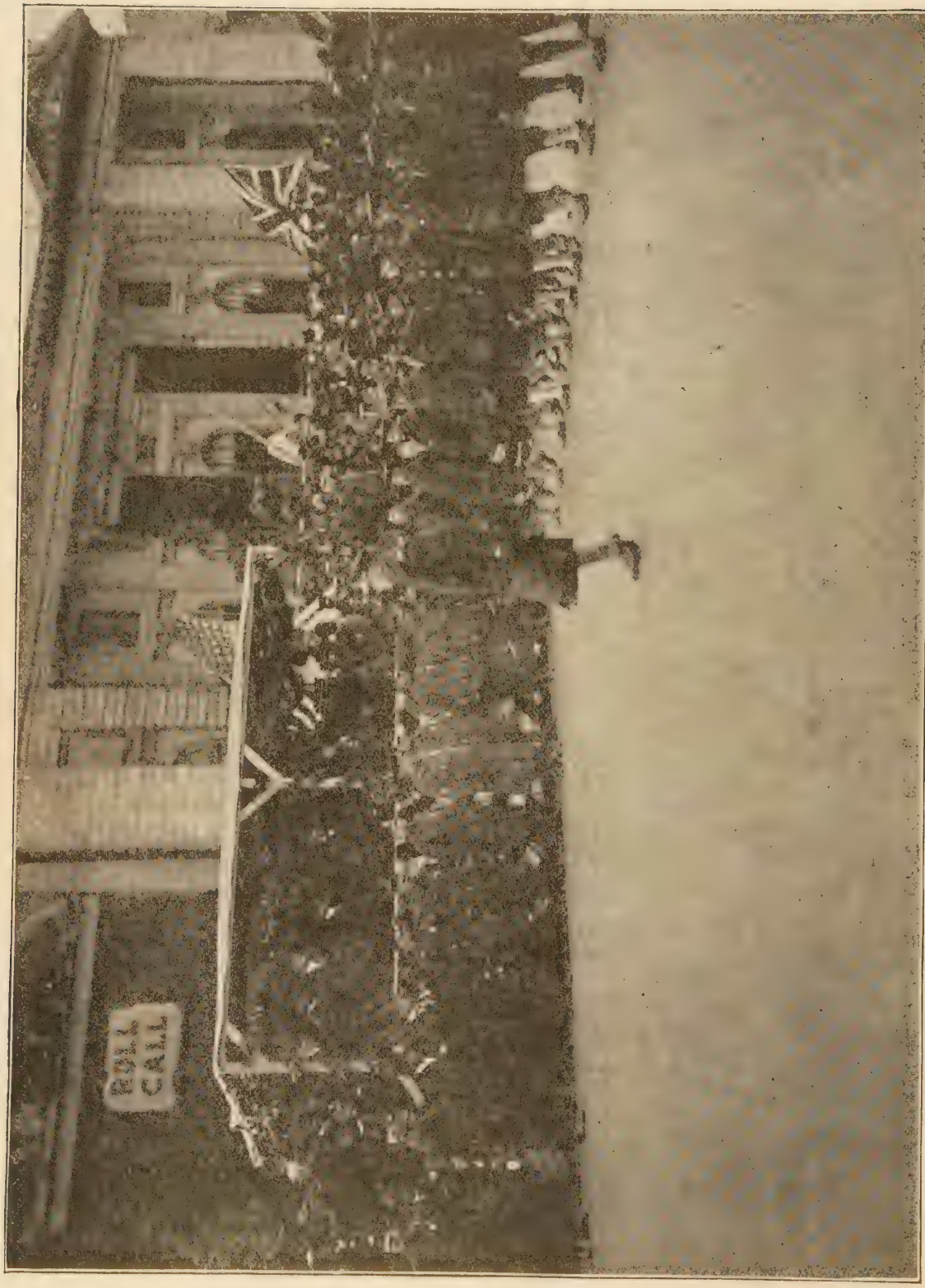
U. S. Submarines Played an Important Part in the Guarding of American Coasts.

By September 21st, the captured Turks numbered 20,000. An entire Turkish column, attempting to escape into the Jordan valley, was cut off and taken. The whole valley was commanded by Allied artillery and two Turkish armies were in the trap. The British cavalry captured Nazareth and the plains of Armageddon with more stores and guns. The Seventh and Eighth Turkish armies were practically annihilated. Six miles piled deep with their bodies bore testimony to the deadly accuracy of the British artillery. dominated. Field Marshal Liman von Sanders, who had been in command of the Turks around Nazareth, had fled to Constantinople.

By October 1st, Damascus was surrounded and taken. French detachments were speeding toward Beirut. This port they took a few days later. Palestine had been completely cleared of the enemy and it was officially announced in London that Gen. Allenby had bagged 71,000 prisoners. The Allies kept advancing northward and a Turk column north of Damas-

A German Liquid-Fire Attack Against British Troops.

A Scene on a No-Man's-Land "Quagmire" on the Western Front.



The Return of the Victory Fleet to New York. The photo shows a division passing the reviewing stand in front of the Public Library. Secretary Daniels in a silk hat can be seen near the center post.

cus was cut off and taken. British and French warships began cooperating along the coast. The Arab chieftain reported the capture of 10,000 Turks in their share of the campaign and of the Ottoman armies involved it was stated that only 17,000 had escaped to the northward.

Thenceforth the Allied advance was rapid. Mosul, on the road to Constantinople, was reached by one expedition, and dered. The remainder of the Turkish forces were demobilized except for enough to serve for policing purposes. The few vessels of the fleet were dismantled. Within a short time British and French vessels had sailed through the Dardanelles to Constantinople. The thousands of British prisoners captured when Gen. Townshend was forced to surrender at Kut-el-Amara, were liberated. It was

American Marines took a part in the rout of the Hun. Note the build of these boys.

other columns moved along the coast to Smyrna where they cooperated with the fleets. Rioting had broken out in the capital and the uprising was directed at the German officers and leaders of the Young Turk party. Turkey was crushed. Facing destruction from the south, west and north, with open revolution threatening, the Porte sued for an armistice under terms which meant surrender. The Dardanelles were surren-

Gen. Townshend himself who had been sent to the Allied commanders with the first plea for an armistice.

In June, her drives in France lagging to a halt, Germany goaded Austria-Hungary into making an attack and on June 15th, the Teutonic Allies began a great offensive over a front of 100 miles from the Asiago plateau to the sea and along the lines on the Piave river. The first force of the drive carried the enemy across

the Piave in places and the Italians, who had now been reinforced by a considerable force of British and French and some American troops, lost 30,000 prisoners. But any initial success was quickly offset by a counter offensive. Within three days the Austrian drive both in the mountainous region of the north and in the lowlands north of Venice had been brought to a complete halt. The Austrians hurled division after division into the battle, regardless of heavy losses. Driven on by the German high command, Austria was staking all on the final effort.

Nature had intervened in behalf of the Italians. The Austrian and German forces had crossed the Piave on pontoons, bringing up with them many heavy guns. Torrential rains had fallen after their advance and Allied airmen had bombed and destroyed the bridges behind them. Cut off, they were slaughtered in thousands. The only means of reaching them with food was by airplane and the Allies held the superiority in the air. Along the entire Asiago plateau the Austrians met defeat. It was estimated that they had thrown half a million men into action and of these probably 200,000 were numbered among the casualties.

The Italians followed up with a victorious advance. Positions along the Brenta river were taken and the heights in the Mont del Rosso and Di Val Bello region were scaled and taken. Fresh army corps were rushed to aid the Austrians, for the determined advance threatened to carry the Italians back to their lines held before the disaster of months before. But steadily the Italians and British and French pressed forward, improving their lines and strengthening their positions during July and August. Height by height the enemy was pushed back in the north.

In October, the Italian effort developed into a heavy drive. Every available unit was sent in against the Austrians, who had been somewhat weakened by the withdrawal of German forces back to the front in France. The influence of the Separatists had begun to be felt seriously and revolt was threatening to disrupt the Dual Monarchy. Through Holland, Emperor Charles had asked for mediation to secure the meeting of a peace conference. Back across the Asiago plateau the Austrians were driven, losing thousands in dead and prisoners. Austria was now extremely hard pressed, many of her troops were unreliable and she pleaded with Berlin for reinforcements. Crossings of the Piave were won by the Italians and British and the big push northward was rapid. On October 30th, American troops under Maj. Gen. Treat, operating with the British army, crossed the Piave. Vittorio, the great Austrian base, was captured and a hundred other towns freed along a front of 100 miles.

General Tasker H. Bliss, former Chief of Staff of the United States Army, one of the American delegates to the Peace Conference.

The offensive now had developed until it reached all along the Piave. In the Mont Grappa region the enemy was beaten at Segusino in a sanguinary battle and Mont Gesen was taken.

Full disaster had overtaken Emperor Charles' armies by late in October. Fifty thousand prisoners had been taken and hundreds of the heaviest guns. The Austrians were pouring across the mountains in rout and the Allies were pushed to their utmost even to keep in contact in places. The Tagliamento river was crossed by the Italians. Other columns reached the towns of Azzano, Decimo, Portugruaru and Concordia. The Italians were now within less than eighteen miles of Udine, where the Italian headquarters had been established when the disaster at Caporetta overtook them. Their total advance had been thirty miles.

On November 1st, with nearly 100,000 of their armies prisoners, 200,000 more cut off and surrounded in the Brenta and Piave regions, emissaries from the Austrian commanders entered the Italian lines under a white flag, bearing a plea for an armistice. The Allied war council in Versailles began drawing up the terms. In the meantime, with the announcement that he would rather drive the Austrians out than accept their surrender, Gen. Diaz kept up his hammer blows. The Austrians were in full rout and their casualties were mounting into the hundreds of thousands. Their entire army in the Trentino district had been cut off.

On November 3rd, the Allies' terms were presented to Austria and the armistice was signed. Germany's last prop had been kicked out from under her. Fighting in a death grip on the west front, her eastern borders were now exposed to the enemy's attack. The armistice terms left Austria powerless. She was forced to evacuate all territories under occupation. Her fleet had to be given up to the Allies. Her army had to be totally demobilized and all her troops fighting with the Germans in France had to be withdrawn. The armistice terms practically granted what Italy had fought for, the occupation of the Trentino district, which she had lost to Austria, as well as the peninsula of Istria. The armistice provided magistrational powers over this territory and troops also began occupation to ensure the keeping of the terms in good faith.

Brigadier General Peyton Conway March, Commander of all United States Artillery in France.

Germany made her first direct request for an armistice on October 6th, but for the purposes of narration the peace negotiations which resulted in the complete dissolution of the Teutonic Allies and the surrender of Germany are here reviewed in chronological order, along with the internal disturbances which accompanied the defeats at the front and which have resulted in a political upheaval of the greater part of Europe:

As early as September 15th, the Kaiser had offered a separate peace to Belgium, one that was scorned by the little kingdom. This was taken as the first indication of a "peace drive", started to weaken the Allies and bring discord. The offer was vague except in that it asked Belgium's neutrality until the close of the war and guaranteed her political identity.

On the same day Austria, through the Swiss government and the other neutral nations, sent a proposal for a parley of the powers to accomplish peace. It proposed that the hostilities not cease during the discussions, which were to be carried on by delegates from the belligerents to bring out the ideas of eventual terms for the ending of the war. The conference was to be "nonbinding and confidential discussion on the basic principle for the conclusion of peace".

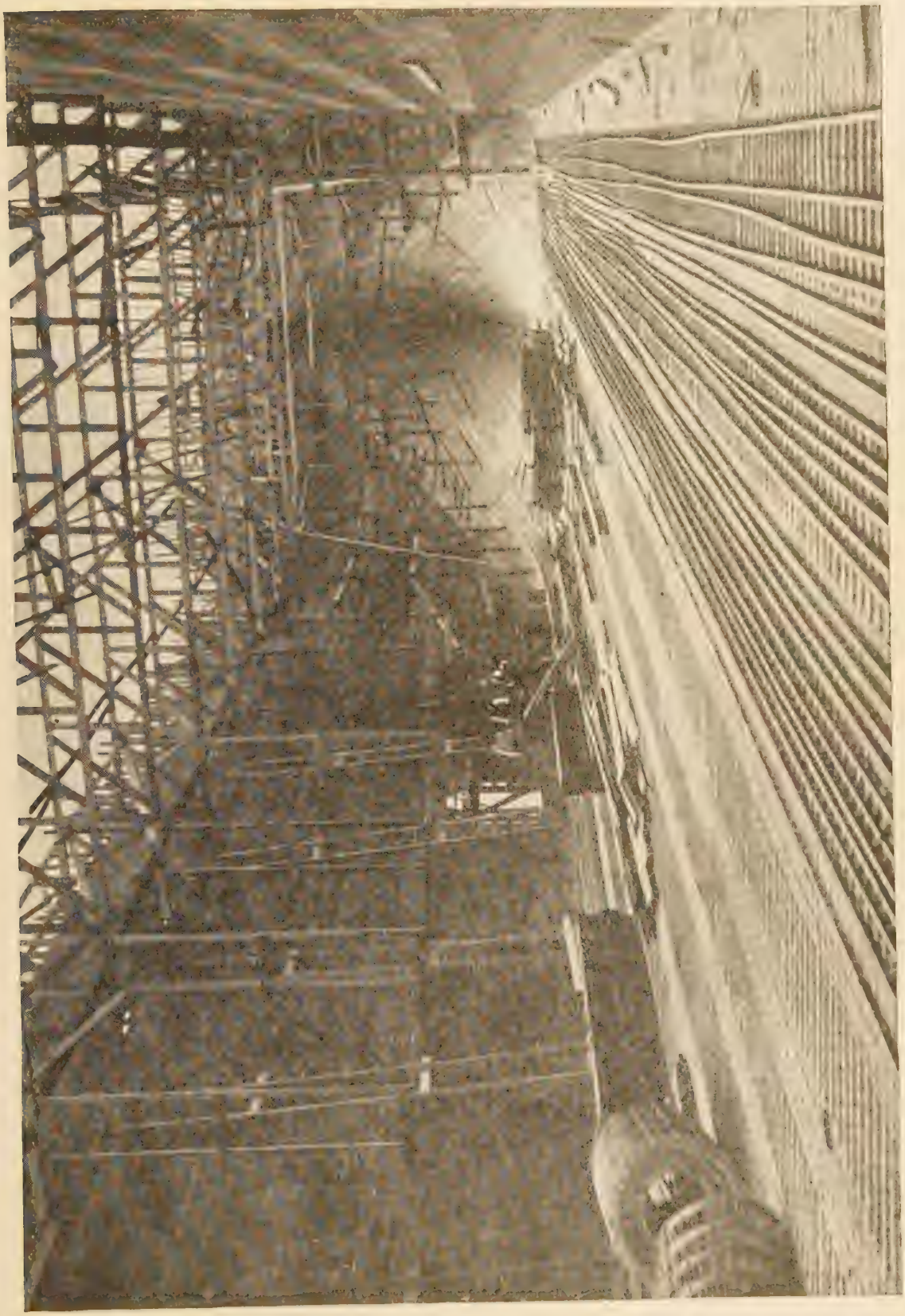
Though the Allies regarded this simply as a ruse, President Wilson sent the following curt reply:

"The government of the United States feels that there is only one reply which it can make to the suggestion of the imperial Austro-Hungarian government. It has repeatedly and with entire candor stated the terms upon which the United States would consider peace, and can and will entertain no proposal for a conference upon a matter concerning which it has made its position and purpose so plain."

King George Salutes the Stars and Stripes When United States Soldiers March Through London.

Austria-Hungary was known to be facing dissolution. The Czecho-Slavs and the Jugo-Slavs were already declaring for separate republics and Bohemia was threatening a similar step.

On October 6th, Germany, with the



Interior of One of the Cement Ships, Showing Construction Work.

new chancellor, Prince Maximilian of Baden, in power as the representative of the coalition government, which had been formed to still the threatened disturbances by adherents of the Social democrats, sent the first direct appeal for an armistice. On that day Prince Maximilian, through the Swiss government, sent the following note to President Wilson:

"The German Government requests the president of the United States to take in hand the restoration of peace, acquaint all the belligerent states of this request and invite them to send plenipotentiaries for the purpose of opening negotiations.

"It accepts the program set forth by the president of the United States in his message to congress on January 8 and in his later pronouncements, especially his speech of September 27, as a basis for peace negotiations.

"With a view to avoiding further bloodshed, the German government requests the immediate conclusion of an armistice on land and water and in the air."

Baron Burian, of Austria, made known the similar wish of Austria, and in his subsequent utterances to the Reichstag, Prince Maximilian supplemented his declaration of the government's position by indicating the wish to change the constitution, to accomplish democratization and to form a league of nations to protect the peace of the world.

The message of President Wilson mentioned in the German note occupies a place in a previous chapter as the basis upon which all peace negotiations must rest. His liberty loan speech on September 27th, to which the German chancellor also referred, follows:

"We are all agreed that there can be no peace obtained by any kind of bargain or compromise with the governments of the central empires, because we have dealt with them already and have seen them

Boxing contest viewed by 20,000 soldiers. It was one of the most picturesque boxing tournaments ever held at Camp Upton. The ring was raised about eight feet from the ground and draped with the flags of the Allies.

deal with other governments that were parties to this struggle, at Brest-Litovsk and Bucharest.

"They have convinced us that they are without honor and do not intend justice. They observe no covenants, accept no principle but force and their own interest.

"Get out first—then talk armistice and peace," was the sense of the reply sent to Germany by President Wilson on October 8th. He stated that there could be no compromise with autocracy and demanded to know in unequivocable language if Germany would accept the uncompromising terms laid down by him. The Allied nations saw in the German note another trap, one by which the German chancellor hoped to involve the United States in a long diplomatic discussion, which, when peace finally was denied, would strengthen the flagging strength of the German people's faith in the government by showing them that the Allies sought not a just peace but were bent upon a war of slaughter and conquest. But every faith was placed in President Wilson, and his reply, which follows, was ample assurance that he would handle the situation:

"Before making reply to the request of the imperial German government, and in order that that reply shall be as candid and straightforward as the momentous interests involved require, the president of the United States deems it necessary to assure himself of the exact meaning of the note of the imperial chancellor.

"Does the imperial chancellor mean that the imperial German government accepts the terms laid down by the president in his address to the congress of the United States on the eighth of January last and in subsequent addresses, and that its object in entering into discussions would be only to agree upon the practical details of their application?

"The president feels bound to say with

Capt. Raoul Lufbery, premier "ace" of the Lafayette Escadrille, has brought down his twelfth German plane. He would have made it thirteen had he not run short of ammunition.

regard to the suggestion of an armistice that he would not feel at liberty to propose a cessation of arms to the governments with which the government of the United States is associated against the central powers, so long as the armies of those powers are upon their soil. The good faith of any discussion would manifestly depend upon the consent of the central powers immediately to withdraw their forces everywhere from invaded territory.

"The president also feels that he is justified in asking whether the imperial chancellor is speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the empire who have so far conducted the war. He deems the answer to these questions vital from every point of view."

Americans on Aisne Sector. American troops on active service in the Aisne sector: boarding motor-lorries for a journey.

From all over the United States, from the people and from Congress came demands for the unconditional surrender of the Central Powers. The Germans were being driven back and every day registered another defeat for their arms. There was scant faith placed in the sincerity of their peace aims. On October 14th, Germany's further expression of acceptance of President Wilson's terms came by wireless. The message follows:

"In reply to the question of the president of the United States of America the German government hereby declares:

"The German government has accepted the terms laid down by President Wilson in his address of January the eighth, and in his subsequent addresses, on the foundation of a permanent peace of justice.

"Consequently, its object in entering into discussions would be only to agree upon practical details of the application of those terms.

"The German government believes that the governments of the powers associated with the government of the United States also take the position taken by President Wilson in his address. The German government, in accordance with the Austro-Hungarian government, for the purpose of bringing about an armistice, declares itself ready to comply with the propositions of the president in regard to evacuation.

"The German government suggests that the president may occasion the meeting of a mixed commission for making the necessary arrangements concerning the evacuation.

"The present German government, which has undertaken the responsibility for this step towards peace, has been formed by conferences and in agreement with the great majority of the reichstag.

"The chancellor, supported in all of his actions by the will of this majority, speaks in the name of the German government and of the German people."

This note was signed by Solf, the new state secretary of the foreign office, and brought forth a new cry for unconditional surrender both here and in the allied nations of Europe. Further evidence of a "peace trap" was seen in the suggestion for discussion of the terms, and on October 15th President Wilson sent a reply

which left no doubt as to the uncompromising attitude of the Allies and the United States. He stated that the terms of evacuation and reparation were those which must be determined wholly by the Allies and in which Germany could have no hand. He called attention to the continued activities of submarines and the burning of cities during the German retreat and other inhuman acts, all being committed while the Germans sought to discuss terms for the cessation of hostilities. He left no doubt that the deposing of the Kaiser was one of the chief aims of the nations fighting against Germany. In the following language he told of the blow aimed at autocracy:

"It is necessary, also, in order that there may be no possibility of misunderstanding, that the president should very solemnly call the attention of the government of Germany to the language and plain intent of one of the terms of peace which the German government has now accepted. It is contained in the address of the president delivered at Mount Vernon on the fourth of July last. It is as follows:

" 'The destruction of every arbitrary power anywhere that can separately, secretly, and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world; or, if it cannot be presently destroyed, at least its reduction to virtual impotency.'

"The power which has hitherto controlled the German nation is of the sort here described. It is within the choice of the German nation to alter it. The president's words just quoted naturally constitute a condition precedent to peace, if peace is to come by the action of the German people themselves. The president feels bound to say that the whole process of peace will, in his judgment, depend upon the definiteness and the satisfactory character of the guaranties which can be given in this fundamental matter. It is indispensable that the governments associated against Germany should know beyond peradventure with whom they are dealing."

American and French Soldiers Searching for Concealed Self-explosive Bombs.

Affairs in Austria were going from bad to worse. The discussion of splitting the Dual Monarchy into four states was going on. These new nations on the map were to be a Germanic Austria, the republic of the Czecho-Slavs and the Illyrian and Ruthenian republics. On October 18th, the Czecho-Slavs revolted and raised their own flag. Prague was seized and a republic was declared with no doubt that its national policies would be against Germany and all other forms of autocracy. From Berlin came the first indications to the world that open rebellion was threatened. The Socialists rioted and a display of force was made to quell them.

The Allies were placing great faith in President Wilson's ability to keep out of diplomatic tangles with Berlin and Vienna and to avoid traps in peace negotiations. But with the consent of the

Heavy Artillery on the French Front Used by the Americans to Advantage.

United States, it was agreed that all peace proposals should go to the Allied war cabinet. The British, with the taste of victory, with the end of four years of conflict and suffering almost in sight, were determined in their demands that absolutely no compromise be reached.

From Austria had come a plea for a separate peace, but it was not made public until October 19th, the day on which President Wilson sent his reply. Austria, like Germany, agreed to the famous "fourteen articles", but likewise, suggested "negotiations of the details". The President's curt reply voiced the same uncompromising attitude he had adopted toward Germany and Vienna was told that evacuation must come first, then talk of peace.

Another note was received from Berlin on October 21st. This reiterated assurances that the overthrow of autocracy would come with peace and that it was the voice of the German people speaking through the negotiations, not that of the Kaiser. It protested against the view that atrocities were being committed and assured President Wilson that these acts were against the strictest orders and the guilty were being punished. But the note, like its predecessors, made no suggestion of quick and absolute surrender on the terms the Allies would impose. At the same time Great Britain made her position plain as regarded evacuation of territory. Hints at new demands regarding the freedom of the seas were made and the British press asked for terms which would impose the fullest reparation and indemnities for the ravaged countries.

President Wilson's reply to this latest advance was the strongest of his exchanges with Germany and deserves full space here. The note closed the doors to any further discussion without a guaranty of surrender and made it plain that the Allied military command would dictate the terms of an armistice in the field and that Germany must apply directly there. It also dealt in unqualified terms with the record of pledges broken by Germany and stated that the United States and the Allies would in no way deal with the Hohenzollern dynasty or with a cabinet who represented them. The President's memorable note follows:

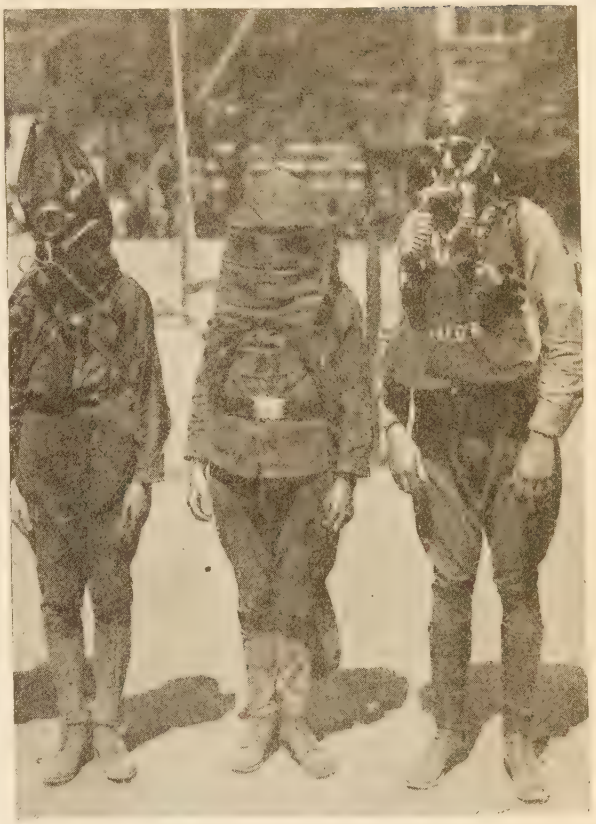
"Having received the solemn and explicit assurance of the German government that it unreservedly accepts the terms of peace laid down in his address to the congress of the United States on the eighth of January, 1918, and the principles of settlement enunciated in his subsequent addresses, particularly the address of the twenty-seventh of September, and that it desires to discuss the details of their application and that this wish and purpose emanated, not from those who have hitherto dictated German policy and conducted the present war on Germany's behalf, but from ministers who speak for the majority of the reichstag

and for an overwhelming majority of the German peoples; and having received also the explicit promise of the present German government that the humane rules of civilized warfare will be observed both on land and sea by the German armed forces, the president of the United States feels that he cannot decline to take up with the governments with which the government of the United States is associated the question of an armistice.

"He deems it his duty to say again, however, that the only armistice he would feel justified in submitting for consideration would be one which should leave the United States and the powers associated with her in a position to enforce any arrangements that may be entered into and to make a renewal of hostilities on the part of Germany impossible.

"The president has, therefore, transmitted his correspondence with the present German authorities to the governments with which the government of the United States is associated as a belligerent, with the suggestion that, if those governments are disposed to effect peace upon the terms and principles indicated, their military advisers and the military advisers of the United States be asked to submit to the governments associated against Germany the necessary terms of such an armistice as will fully protect the interests of the peoples involved and ensure to the associated governments the unrestricted power to safeguard and enforce the details of the peace to which the German government has agreed, provided they deem such an armistice possible from the military point of view.

"Should such terms of armistice be suggested, their acceptance by Germany will afford the best concrete evidence of her unequivocal acceptance of the terms



Three soldiers wearing different types of gas masks. At an exhibition they realistically went through their drills and maneuvers and won applause from the great crowd that gathered to see them.

and principles of peace from which the whole action proceeds.

"The president would deem himself lacking in candor did he not point out in the frankest possible terms the reason why extraordinary safeguards must be demanded. Significant and important as the constitutional changes seem to be which are spoken of by the German foreign secretary in his note of the 20th of October, it does not appear that the principle of a government responsible to the German people has yet been fully worked out or that any guarantees either exist or are in contemplation that the alterations of principle and of practice now partially agreed upon will be permanent.

"Moreover, it does not appear that the

Minister Whitlock returning to his post in Belgium. U. S. Minister Brand Whitlock aboard the S. S. Rotterdam.

heart of the present difficulty has been reached. It may be that future wars have been brought under the control of the German people, but the present war has not been; and it is with the present war that we are dealing.

"It is evident that the German people have no means of commanding the acquiescence of the military authorities of the empire in the popular will; that the power of the king of Prussia to control the policy of the empire is unimpaired; that the determining initiative still remains with those who have hitherto been the masters of Germany.

"Feeling that the whole peace of the world depends now on plain speaking and straightforward action, the president deems it his duty to say, without any attempt to soften what may seem harsh words, that the nations of the world do not and cannot trust the word of those who have hitherto been the masters of German policy, and to point out once more that, in concluding peace and attempting to undo the infinite injuries and injustices of this war, the government of the United States cannot deal with any but veritable representatives of the German people.

"If it must deal with the military masters and the monarchial autocrats of Germany now, or if it is likely to have to deal with them later in regard to the international obligations of the German empire, it must demand, not peace negotiations, but surrender. Nothing can be gained by leaving this essential thing unsaid."

Events were transpiring in the domains of the Central Powers which were having a strong influence. The people's party and the Social Democrats, openly committed to an early peace, were making their demands heard in Berlin. The Germans were being cleared from Roumania and the eastern gates of Austria were now threatened by the Allies. Hungarian soldiers were openly joining the peace

mobs in Budapest and other cities in the Dual Monarchy. And, most serious of all, the militarists, who had committed Germany to the great war, had lost their last shreds of power. Ludendorff, who, more than Hindenburg, was the embodiment of the military policy, was forced out after a bitter controversy. The first quartermaster general, up to the last moment, even with the iron military machine falling about his ears, is supposed to have stood firm against surrender. Hindenburg, with others, had met the Kaiser and the new chancellor and his ministry in to it.

Austria again asked for separate peace terms and on October 29th she made her direct plea for an armistice at once, the details of which have been recounted above.

The action of the Allies was quick in regard to Germany's last plea. The Allied war cabinet met at Versailles and framed the terms of armistice. These were transmitted to Gen. Foch and on November 5th, President Wilson communicated to Berlin the fact that the terms might be had by applying to the Allied

Americans Before St. Mihiel Salient. Before opening artillery fire on the Germans in the St. Mihiel salient these American boys are seen with gas masks on awaiting to receive the final word.

conference. There were rumors that he frankly told his sovereign that all was lost. And with this news to the outside world, came authoritative evidence that the German army at the front was disbanding in revolt even as it retreated.

Berlin, convinced that the Allies and the United States would countenance no more quibbling, on October 27th, made a direct request for the terms of an armistice. To President Wilson, Berlin addressed the information that the government was now by the people and that the military authority had been subjected high command on the field of battle.

Germany, pushed to extreme straits, did not delay. Gen. Foch was notified by wireless that a German armistice commission sought to enter the lines and confer with him at headquarters, and on November 7th, firing was stopped at the point in the lines where the commission was to arrive and they were taken to Gen. Foch's headquarters. Gen. E. G. W. von Gruenell, Germany's delegate to the Hague peace conferences; Gen. H. K. A. von Winterfeld, former military attache in Paris; Vice Admiral Meurer, and Ad-

miral Paul von Hintze made up the German commission.

And even as they were entering the lines, great events making for the collapse of Germany and Austria were transpiring. Along a front of a hundred miles the Allied armies were advancing in an assault which in savageness surpassed anything that had gone before. Ghent had capitulated as Queen Elizabeth of Belgium watched; Sedan was in flames and the first American troops had advanced to its outskirts; the Italians now numbered their prisoners at 1,000,000 men and they had taken 6,000 big guns and 200,000 horses. And in Germany there remained no doubt that autocracy was toppling. German sailors on some of the battleships at Kiel had revolted and seized the vessels in the name of the revolution. The first outburst of the workers and soldiers movement came when 20,000 workers gathered at Stuttgart and waved the red flag and shouted the slogan "Down with the war and long live the social republic". Dispatches which found their way out of Austria revealed that a state of chaos existed there. Cities were flooded by the soldiers returning in disorder. The demoralized troops were plundering and rallying to the banners of a score of incipient revolts. Of food there was little and the returning soldiers seized what little of that there was.

On November 8th, from the German commission within the French lines, there was sent a courier who bore the terms of the Allies to the German council at Spa. Germany was given seventy-two hours in which to answer, but the request that fighting cease until that time was refused by Gen. Foch. The wily French commander refused to be tricked and his victorious troops kept on in their rush Rhinewards.

Emperor Wilhelm II, the world's greatest autocrat, abdicated the throne and renounced the rights of succession for the Crown Prince on November 9th and

Lieut. Eddie Rickenbacher, America's greatest "Ace," standing by his machine at an American Aviation field, France. Lieut. Rickenbacher brought down twenty-six enemy planes.

the overthrow of autocracy and militarism was complete. This was followed by the announcement a few hours later that the first of the German states to announce a republic was Bavaria and that the diet of that little kingdom had overthrown the Wittelsbach dynasty and deposed King Ludwig and his heir, Prince Rupprecht. The German chancellor's announcement of the Kaiser's abdication follows:

"The German imperial chancellor, Prince Max of Baden, has issued the following decree: 'The kaiser and king has decided to renounce the throne.

" 'The imperial chancellor will remain in office until the questions connected with the abdication of the kaiser, the renouncing by the crown prince of the throne of the German empire and of Prussia, and the setting up of a regency shall have been settled.

" 'For the regency he intends to appoint Deputy Ebert as imperial chancellor, and he proposes that a bill shall be brought in for the establishment of a law providing for the immediate promulgation of general suffrage and for a constitutional German national assembly, which will settle finally the future form of government of the German nation and of those peoples which might be desirous of coming within the empire.' "

Henry P. Davison of the Red Cross.

Thus ended the reign of the man whose dreams of dominion had plunged the world into war. With some of his staff and members of his personal household, he fled to Holland, where he was interned. Early in the year 1919 the conferees of the nations will meet and settle the peace terms. His presence in Holland was a great source of embarrassment to that country. The people of Holland, influenced by the wave of democracy—and in some instances bolshevism — that was sweeping Europe, feared that his pres-

ence in their country might be used as an excuse to demand the removal of royalty and the setting up of a socialistic form of government.

In the meantime the political disturbances in Germany were growing. The strikes of workers extended through all the cities of northern Germany. More ships had been seized by the rebels at Kiel and there had been fighting between them and the scattered royalists. With the abdication of the Kaiser, Berlin had been seized by the workmen's and soldiers' council. The revolutionists held sway in Wurtemburg and Brunswick and the monarchs of those principalities stepped down from their thrones.

On November 10th, the red flag was flying everywhere in Berlin and a republic was declared to exist by the social democrats. Friedrich Ebert, with the resignation of Prince Maximilian, had become chancellor and head of the provisional government. Among his cabinet he numbered Dr. Liebknecht, recently released from prison, and Philip Scheidemann, both worldwide known leaders of govern-

Remarkable View of Exterior Y. M. C. A. Canteen Dugout Situated 150 Yards from the Boche Lines.

mental reform. A general strike had been called and within seven hours, with no bloodshed except for a few deaths in clashes with German army officers, the overthrow of the imperial government had been accomplished and another republic added to the free nations of the world.

The world war ended at 11 o'clock

A. M. (Paris time) on November 11th, 1918. The United States received the news in a dispatch sent from Washington stating that at 2:45 o'clock A. M. the state department had announced that the armistice terms had been signed and that they would become effective at the hour given above. Gen. Foch had conveyed the news to all his commanders and promptly to the minute firing ceased at the time set.

The terms imposed in the armistice left no opportunity for Germany to resume military operations. With the signing of the agreement the new government in Berlin, in effect, placed itself absolutely in the hands of the Allies. The following is a summary of the terms of the armistice:

MILITARY SURRENDERS

The Germans, within fourteen days, must evacuate all of Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, and Luxemburg. All German troops remaining after that time will become prisoners of war.

The Germans must surrender 5,000 cannon, half heavy and half field artillery; 30,000 machine guns, 3,000 mine throwers, and 2,000 airplanes, fighters, bombers—firstly D. seventy-threes—and night bombing machines.

Interior View of Replica of a Jewish Welfare Board Hut in France on the Fighting Lines

The Germans must surrender in good condition 5,000 locomotives, 50,000 wagons, and 10,000 motor lorries. They also must turn over all the railways in

Alsace-Lorraine and their coal and metal supplies.

All Germans in East Africa must surrender in one month.

NAVAL SURRENDERS

The Germans must surrender 160 submarines, including all cruiser and mine laying submarines. They also must give auxiliary vessels (trawlers, motor vessels, etc.) are to be disarmed.

All ports on the Black sea occupied by the Germans are to be surrendered, together with all the Russian vessels captured by the Germans.

All merchant vessels belonging to the Allies now in the hands of the Germans

The Salvation Army Hut and Cooking Station on the Fighting Lines in France.

up the following naval craft, the individual ships to be designated by the allies: Fifty destroyers, six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers.

The other submarines and all the other surface vessels are to be disarmed and dismanned and concentrated in German ports to be designated by the Allies. All are to be surrendered without reciprocity.

OCCUPATIONS

The allies will occupy all of the country on the left (west) bank of the Rhine and the principal crossings at Mayence, Coblenz, and Cologne, together with the bridgeheads (twenty miles in radius) on the right bank.

The Germans must withdraw and create a neutral zone on the right bank forty kilometers wide from the Holland border to the Swiss border.

The allies will occupy the German forts on the Cattegat to insure freedom of access to the Baltic.

RESTORATION

Besides France, Belgium and Alsace, the Germans must retire from all territory held by Russia, Roumania, and Turkey before the war.

The treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk are abrogated.

The allies are to have access to the restored territories in the east either through Dantzig or the River Vistula.

RESTITUTION

Full restitution for all damage done by the German armies.

Restitution of the cash taken from the National Bank of Belgium.

Return of all of the gold taken by the Germans from Russia and Roumania, this gold to be turned over to the allies as trustees.

REPATRIATION

All allied prisoners in Germany, military, naval or civilian, to be repatriated immediately without reciprocal action by the allies.

The territory west of the Rhine which the Germans were to evacuate is roughly 20,000 square miles in extent, with a population of about 9,000,000. It includes some of the most important mining and manufacturing districts of Germany, and such great centers as Cologne, Strassburg, Metz, and Coblenz.

The territory consists of Alsace-Lorraine, the Palatinate, the Rhine province, Birkenfeld, and about one-third of Hesse.

The Rhine province is the largest of these districts. Its area is 10,423 square miles and the census of 1910 gave its population as 5,759,000. It contains great coal and metal deposits and some of the largest iron and steel manufacturing centers of Germany. There also are textile industries on a vast scale as well as extensive farming and wine growing regions.

Two Salvation Army Lasses, Prize Winners in Doughnut and Pie Making.

The most important cities are Cologne, Coblenz, Bonn, and Aix-la-Chapelle. The Rhine province is the most westerly province of Prussia, by which it was acquired in 1815.

Next in size is Alsace-Lorraine. Torn from France after the Franco-Prussian war, its restoration to the mother country has been one of the chief points upon which the allies have insisted in outlining their terms. Its area is 5,600 square miles, and its population about 1,875,000.

The principal towns are Metz, Strassburg, Muehlhausen, and Kolmar. It contains the great iron ore district of Briey, one of the principal sources of German supply, and the extensive Saar coal fields. Its textile industries are among the most important in Germany.

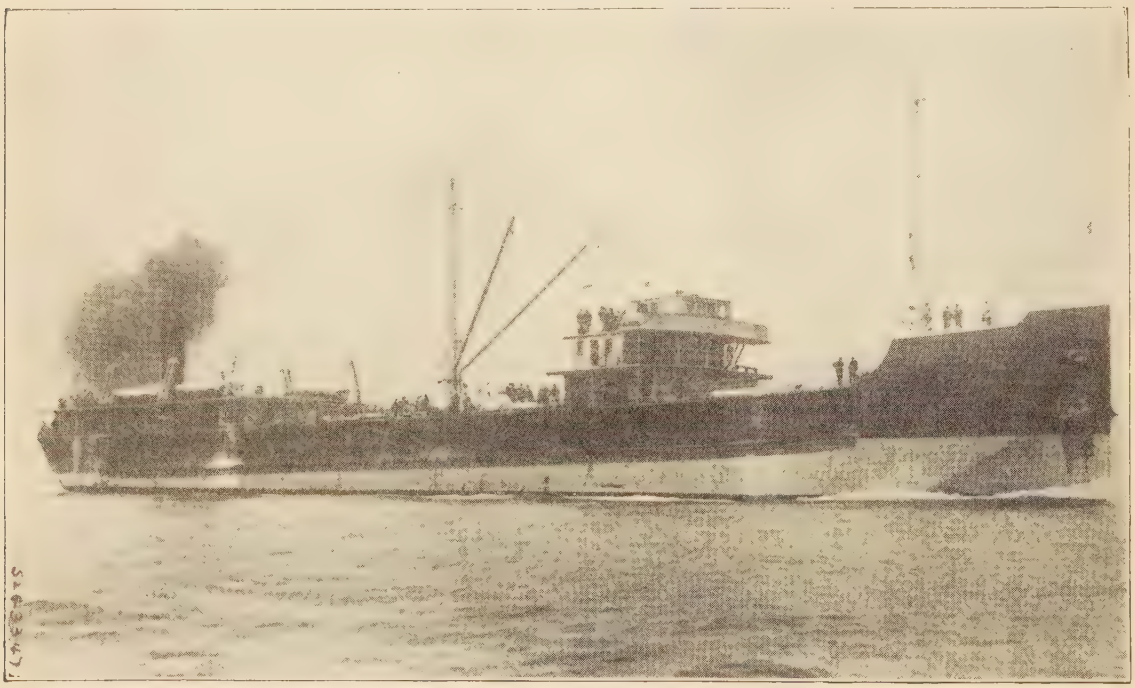
The Palatinate is 2,372 square miles in extent, and has about 950,000 inhabitants. It is chiefly a farming and wine growing country, although there are some large

manufacturing industries. The capital is Speyer.

Birkenfeld is a principality belonging to, although detached from the grand duchy of Oldenburg. It is inclosed in the Rhine province. Its area is 194 square miles, and its population about 45,000.

The total area of the grand duchy of Hesse, about one-third of which lies west of the Rhine, is 2,965 square miles, and its total population is 1,300,000. The capital of Hesse, which is on the west bank of the Rhine, is Mainz, one of the principal fortresses of Germany.

declined by 45 per cent. while that of the allies was as great at the end as at the beginning of the campaign, thanks to the extraordinarily rapid reinforcement of the American army. The British bore the brunt of the fighting of the final campaign and their strength was reduced by 27 per cent. during the season while that of the French declined by only 21 per cent. When the fighting ceased the retreating German armies, outnumbered by the ratio of 25 to 17, terribly exhausted and short of munitions, were being split in two by the forest of the Ardennes,



The interned Austrian transport "Danube," used to carry food to the starving people of Belgium.

Evacuation of this territory also freed from German control the nominally independent grand duchy of Luxemburg, which, invaded by Germany at the beginning of the war, had been completely under its control since that time.

That the Germans gave up the struggle on November 11th because the allies were about to destroy the German armies is beyond peradventure. During the course of the sanguinary 1918 campaign the strength of the enemy's field armies de-

which would have prevented mutual support being quickly given by the northern and southern German armies. Foch would have covered himself with glory by administering the coup de mort to the stricken German armies, but he yielded to the view that it would be a crime to sacrifice thousands of additional lives on the allied side when every essential of peace could be secured without such a sacrifice. The only regrettable feature about that decision is that multitudes of

German people did not sense the fact that their armies were defeated.

Figures suggesting in detail the changes in the relative strength of the combatants as the German offensive waned and the allied offensive progressed to final victory were given by General Maurice, who appears to have had access to semi-official information. Taking the strength of the Belgian army as the unit, which means that a unit represents slightly more than 100,000 men, the following appears to have been the standing of the belligerents on March 21st, when the supreme German effort to win the war began.

Strength of Allied Armies		Strength of German Armies
British	10½	
French	12¾	
American	¾	
Belgian	1	
		26
	25 units	26 units

Thus the actual strength of the Germans at the front at the beginning of the campaign was little more than 100,000 greater than that of the four allied nations, but the Germans had 13 other units, or more than 1,300,000 additional troops, on the way across Europe, which they could use and had available in the west before they attacked the French north of the Aisne on May 27th. In spite of all his losses in attacking the British, the enemy's attacking strength in May had increased from 26 to 31 units, giving him an advantage of more than half a million men. In the first weeks of the campaign the allies were unable to make the best use of their several and distinct armies because of the lack of a supreme commander. Had the wisest use been made of the pooled resources of the allies it is doubtful that the reverses between March and July ever would have been suffered. The enemy, with undivided control, was able to concentrate such overpowering strength against a 50-mile sector of the British front as gave him the initiative over all the allied armies and got them "in bad." A long and anxious time was spent before the allies freed themselves from their painful disadvantage.

The writer has stated his belief that Foch had little idea, himself, what would be the effect of a counter-thrust on July 18. The most he counted on, probably, was that the enemy's offensive would be held up until the reinforcements from the United States would permit a genuine offensive campaign to proceed. This view is supported by the fact that in July the enemy still retained a great advantage in numbers though his troops were more battle-worn. The relative strength of the combatants when the allies struck back was:

Allied Strength		German Strength
British	9½	
French	11½	
U. S.	3	
Belgian	1	
		30
	25	30

It will be noticed that the strength of the British and French had fallen off by 2¼ units, which were made up by the Americans. The German strength, since March, had increased by 4 units.

The rapidly-increasing American reserves justified Foch in striking and in keeping striking. Having snatched away the initiative he kept the enemy reserves dashing about madly to plug up holes in the line and wore them down rapidly. And so when the Germans made their submission in November the relative strength of the opponents was as follows:

Allied Strength		German Strength
British	8	
French	10	
Americans	6	
Belgians	1	
		17
	25	17

In effect, the 1918 campaign ended in the allies gaining the greatest victory ever recorded in military history.

W. R. P.

Americans Going Forward to Occupy Front Trenches in France.

Marvels of the War on Land, Sea and Air

CHAPTER XVI

TANKS GREAT INVENTION — AIRSHIPS IMPROVED GREATLY — GERMAN SUBMARINE MOST FORMIDABLE — NAVAL COMPARISONS.

The most remarkable invention developed for military purposes during The Great War was the tank. It was an idea adapted from the tractor machine and various persons in England and in America were credited with first giving the suggestion to the British War Office. It was used with considerable success in the battle of the Somme in 1916 but later the anti-tank guns of the Germans proved effective and many officers on both sides were disposed to regard the tank as a failure. Consequently, a complete surprise was sprung by General Byng late in 1917 when hundreds of tanks rushed forward, beating down or carrying away the elaborate wire entanglements protecting the German trenches opposite Cambrai, opening the way for an advance of nine miles by the British infantry. Had General Haig been well supplied with reserves to hurl through the breach thus made by the perambulating fortresses, a different ending to the campaign of that year might have been written into history. Thereafter the tank was greatly feared by the German army but it was too late then for the Germans to go into the manufacture of them on a large scale. They had only a few tanks in their spring offensive in 1918. The British and other allied armies, however, had many hundreds of them and used them as brigades in a most spectacular manner. In the Somme offensive of August, 1918, the tanks did very fine work.

In the air wonderful progress was made in the development of heavier-than-air machines which proved to be much more effective for army purposes than the German dirigibles or Zeppelins. These huge flying monsters were used in making several raids on England but with disastrous results to themselves. Finally the Germans confined the operations of Zeppelins to scouting for the Fleet. When the war began the British army had only one hundred airplanes but at the end of the war they had tens of thousands. On Ostend and Zeebrugge alone the British bombing planes dropped an average of four tons of bombs daily over a period lasting for five months. By that time three-decker airplanes capable of flying thousands of miles and of carrying as many as forty men had been used. The third day after the armistice was signed had been set as the date for a great raid on Berlin by monster allied airplanes.

The submarine became a much more formidable vessel as the war progressed, and the radius and power of the torpedo, its principal weapon, was much increased. Some of the later submarines were of 2,500 tons, equipped with six-inch guns and capable of submerging safely to a depth of 300 feet. The British also developed a battle-cruiser capable of crossing the ocean in three days.

The British Admiralty permitted to be made public the real story of the submarine cruisers the British successfully constructed at the time the Germans were boasting of their super-submarine. The British craft have two funnels and make 24 knots an hour on the surface under steam power. They carry from eight to

ten torpedo tubes, two or three 4-inch guns and also are equipped with internal combustion motors for surface cruising. The batteries for the undersea power can be charged from both the steam and combustion engines, and an ingenious scheme has been devised for quickly dismantling the funnels for the purpose of submerging. The vessels displace 2,000 tons on the surface and 2,700 tons submerged. They are 340 feet long, have a beam of 26 feet and a cruising radius of 3,000 miles. They are designed to be even a match for torpedo-boat destroyers in surface fighting.

It is also known that the British have successfully built a submarine carrying a 12-inch gun, although the details of this craft have not been made public. The craft was built with the idea of making it possible to fire this gun, the new ideas embraced in the construction including the "cushioning" of the boat to withstand the terrific concussion of the gun. This idea is reported unofficially as having been successful. So far as is known the new craft was never employed against any enemy vessel.

During the first half of the year 1918 no less than 100 German submarines were trapped in British mine fields off Heligoland. The total number captured or destroyed during the war is put at 202. As at least 122 were surrendered since the armistice and 58 were not yet completed, it appears that Germany used during the war or had in course of construction, a total of 382 submarines, whereas she was credited with only 35 when war began. During the course of one month the British mined zone off the Belgian coast caught 17 German submarines.

Five hundred and seventeen ships were added to the British navy during the war. The new vessels include seven battleships, five battle-cruisers, twenty-six light cruisers, seventeen monitors, 230 destroyers and 232 mine-sweepers and special craft.

Secretary Daniels of the U. S., at the end of the war said that Great Britain has in operation or building sixty-one battleships, 13 battle cruisers, 31 heavy cruisers, 111 light cruisers, 216 patrol and gunboats, 409 destroyers, 219 submarines, 98 torpedo boats, 32 flotilla leaders, 220 airships and 897 miscellaneous ships.

The United States, with the second largest navy in the world, has built or projected 39 battleships, six battle cruisers, eight armored cruisers, forty light cruisers, 342 destroyers, 181 submarines, 15 coast torpedo vessels, 17 torpedo boats and 569 other vessels.

France has 29 battleships, 21 cruisers, eight light cruisers, 92 destroyers, 121 torpedo boats, 70 submarines, 39 airships and 183 other craft.

Italy has 18 battleships, seven cruisers, ten light cruisers, five monitors, 15 flotilla leaders, 54 destroyers, 83 torpedo boats, 85 submarines, 30 airships and 442 miscellaneous vessels.

Russia, before quitting the war, had 18 battleships, four battle cruisers, 12 heavy and nine light cruisers, 128 destroyers, 54 submarines, 13 torpedo boats, 14 airships and 90 miscellaneous vessels.

Before the armistice was signed, Germany had 47 battleships, six battle cruisers, 51 other cruisers, 223 destroyers, 175 torpedo boats, 243 submarines, and 564 miscellaneous vessels.

During the war 2,475 British ships were sunk with their crews beneath them, and 3,147 vessels were sunk and their crews left adrift. Fishing vessels to the number of 670 were lost during the period of hostilities.

According to one story, when the kaiser urged upon Admiral Scheer in October, 1918, that he sail out to meet the British fleet, the admiral consented, but only on condition that the kaiser accompany the fleet on the flagship and take nominal control of the action with the British fleet. In the interview between Scheer and the kaiser the latter pledged his word to Scheer that he would do so. The German fleet was to have sailed on a Thursday night, the kaiser was to have arrived at Kiel the previous Tuesday. But on the Monday preceding

a naval attache arrived at Kiel with a despatch for Scheer from the kaiser, in which Wilhelm stated that he could not come to Kiel because he believed it to be his duty to remain at Potsdam. Admiral Scheer then decided not only not to allow the fleet to sail, but as a protest against the Hohenzollerns to take possession of Kiel. Scheer informed Premier Ebert that he would hold the great naval base until a new government had been formed. Prince Henry of Prussia, who was at Kiel, was held a prisoner for a week. In a cablegram to government officials at Berlin, Admiral Scheer said, "We preferred disgrace to fighting in the cause of a coward."

Describing the German warships which surrendered to the British and are now interned in Scapa Flow, the correspondent of The Daily Telegraph says:

"The German admiral's flag, white with a thin black cross and two black balls, indicative of his rank, still flew at the main topgallant of the Friedrich der Grosse, as the German squadron moved between the British lines. It hung limp and dirty—typical in this state of all the German ships and their crews. The ships were in such condition that they looked like vessels laid by for breaking-up purposes. They could not have seen paint for two years. Their sides, funnels and bridges were covered with red rust, and the masts were black with soot. The guns even had not been painted for months.

"The Derfflinger was in better condition than any of the others, and there was an appearance on board that discipline was still in vogue. On all the other ships the crews were lounging about, many on the quarter decks, not recognizing their officers. On the Derfflinger the officers were parading smartly about on their own quarter, and the men were clean and orderly. As we passed close to each ship the men crowded the rail. They looked miserable and drenched and cold. Their clothing was nondescript. There was an air of melancholy and depression everywhere.

"It was a pleasure to come from them alongside our own great ships, where everything was spick and span. Hearty sailormen with cheery faces were at every porthole, and the quarter decks were occupied only by officers, the commander marching briskly along in the traditional way, telescope under his arm. The German officers have been very polite, and no trouble whatever has been experienced with them. The British officers have rejected all advances at friendliness, and have extended only the necessary courtesies."

Captain Persius, the German naval critic, chose the moment when the finest vessels of the German navy were about to be surrendered to the allies to publish in the Berlin Tageblatt a sensational article containing revelations regarding the German fleet. Captain Persius said the hope that the German fleet would be able in a second Skagerrak battle to beat the British fleet rested upon the bluff and lies of the naval authorities. In August, 1914, Germany had about one million tonnage in warships, while Great Britain had more than double that, and thanks to the mistakes of Von Tirpitz, the German material was quite inferior to the British. In the Skaggerak battle, the German fleet was saved from destruction partly by good leadership and partly by favorable weather conditions. Had the weather been clear or Admiral Von Scheer's leadership less able the destruction of the whole German navy would have resulted. The long-range British guns would have completely smashed the lighter-armed German ships. As it was, the losses of the German fleet were enormous, and on June 1, Captain Persius says, it was clear to every thinking man that the Skaggerrak battle must be the only general naval engagement of the war.

On all sides, says Capt. Persius, Ad-

miral Von Tirpitz was advised to construct only submarines, but he remained obstinate. On October 1, 1915, several members of the Reichstag made an earnest appeal to the army command—not to the naval staff—with the result that an order was issued terminating the construction of battleships in order that the material might be used for the making of U-boats. In the meantime so great a scarcity of material had arisen that it became necessary to disarm a number of the battleships and take the metal. In this manner, at the beginning of 1916 twenty-three battleships had been disarmed, as well as one newly built cruiser.

At the beginning of 1918 Captain Persius states, the German navy consisted only of dreadnaughts and battleships of the Heligoland, Kaiser and Markgraf types, and some few battle cruisers. All the ships which Von Tirpitz had constructed from 1897 to 1906, at a cost of innumerable millions, had been destroyed, and the U-boats that had been constructed had proved unable to fight against British warships. Admiral Von Capelle during his period as head of the navy constructed very few submarines, work being continued only on the construction of submarines of the large type, but in official quarters it was still stated that Germany possessed an enormous number of U-boats and that the losses were virtually nil. That was not true, the writer admits. In 1917, he states, 83 submarines were constructed, while 66 were destroyed. In April, 1917, Germany had 126 submarines and in October 146. In February, 1918, she had 136 and in June of the same year 113.

Only a small percentage of these submarines were actively operating at any given time, Captain Persius declares. In January, 1917, for instance, when conditions were favorable for submarine work, only twelve percent were active while thirty percent were in harbor, thirty-eight percent under repairs and twenty percent "incapacitated". Submarine crews, he says, were not sufficiently educated and trained and they looked with distrust upon the weapon. In the last months, he reveals, it was very difficult to get men for submarine work, as experienced seamen looked upon the submarine warfare as political stupidity. Captain Persius tells of the mutiny that broke out at the beginning of the month when the German navy was ordered out for attack. Had the seamen obeyed, the writer remarks, innumerable lives would have been lost, and he declares that "every thinking man therefore is of the opinion that the seamen on November 5 rendered an invaluable service to their country".

The surrender of war weapons by the enemy represented a higher percentage of his strength than had been estimated. A Paris despatch reported that the allies captured one-third of the German artillery during their offensive, that one-ninth was destroyed in action and that the surrender of 5,000 guns represented at least one-half of all the enemy's remaining artillery. The enemy was credited with having only 2,586 planes, and the surrender of 1,700 machines left him without a single bombing or fighting plane, the remainder being planes designed for other work.

The detailed report of General Haig on the British operations between April and November showed that General Haig agrees with Foch that the defensive power of the German army was destroyed by the allies' four months' campaign and that the armistice saved the German armies from a colossal disaster and Germany from an armed invasion. But for the cessation of hostilities the allied offensive would have been extended still farther. During the 1918 campaign the British captured more than 200,000 Germans and 2,850 cannon out of a total of 330,000 prisoners and 6,000 cannon taken by all the allied armies. General Haig says that during the last three months of the fighting, the British, using 59 divisions, met and defeated no less than 99 different divisions of the Germans.

W. R. P.

THE MARINES

By

Secretary Josephus Daniels

No achievement in the entire war stands forth more brilliantly than the share of American troops in stopping the Germans. The Germans were within less than fifty miles from Paris. Apparently all that was needed was the final push.

Because the Marines bore the greater share of the fighting at Chateau Thierry and Belleau Wood, Secretary of the Navy Daniels deals extensively with these engagements in his annual report for 1918. Also, a bit of Foch's strategy, not before made public, is hinted at in the report. Secretary Daniels indicates that Marshal Foch realized the strength, courage and efficiency of the Americans before the rest of Europe awoke to them, and that in his confidence he dangled an apparently open road to Paris before the eyes of the German Crown Prince as a bait and that the indomitable Americans were the steel jaws of the trap he was to spring.

Following is that portion of Secretary Daniels' report which deals with the fighting at Chateau Thierry and Belleau Wood, renamed by the French in honor of the U. S. Marine Corps, and which was the first detailed and accurate narrative made public:

MARINE CORPS WINS GLORY.

This efficient fighting, building, and landing force of the Navy has won imperishable glory in the fulfillment of its latest duties upon the battle fields of France, where the Marines, fighting for the time under Gen. Pershing as a part of the victorious American Army, have written a story of valor and sacrifice that will live in the brightest annals of the war. With heroism that nothing could daunt the Marine Corps played a vital role in stemming the German rush on Paris, and in later days aided in the beginning of the great offensive, the freeing of Rheims, and participated in the hard fighting in Champagne, which had as its object the throwing back of the Prussian armies in the vicinity of Cambrai and St. Quentin.

Allied Motor Transport Halted on the Western Front.

With only 8,000 men engaged in the fiercest battles, the Marine Corps casualties numbered 69 officers and 1,531 enlisted men dead and 78 officers and 2,435 enlisted men wounded seriously enough to be officially reported by cablegram, to which number should be added not a few whose wounds did not incapacitate them from further fighting. However, with a casualty list that numbers over half the original 8,000 men who entered battle, the official reports account for only 57 United States Marines who have been captured by the enemy. This includes those who were wounded far in advance of their lines and who fell into the hands of the Germans while unable to resist.

STOPPED DRIVE ON PARIS.

Memorial Day shall henceforth have a greater, deeper significance for America, for it was on that day, May 30, 1918, that our country really received its first call to battle—the battle in which American troops had the honor of stopping the German drive on Paris, throwing back the Prussian hordes in attack after attack, and beginning the retreat which lasted until Imperial Germany was beaten to its knees and its emissaries appealing for an armistice under the flag of truce. And to the United States Marines, fighting side by side with equally brave and equally courageous men in the American Army, to that faithful sea and land force of the Navy fell the honor of taking over the lines where the blow of the Prussian would strike the hardest, the line that was nearest Paris and where, should a breach occur, all would be lost. The world knows today that the United States Marines held that line; that they blocked the advance that was rolling on toward Paris at a rate of six or seven miles a day; that they met the attack in American fashion and with American heroism; that Marines and soldiers of the American Army threw back the crack guard divisions of Germany, broke their advance, and then, attacking, drove them back in the beginning of a retreat that was not to end until the "cease firing" signal sounded for the end of the world's greatest war. In this connection Melville Stone, general manager of the Associated Press, said, following an exhaustive trip of investigation in Europe:

This shell case is now in possession of President Wilson because it contained the first shot fired by American troops at the enemy. An American officer of the forces overseas is shown holding the historic shell case.

"They (the Marines) had before them the best Prussian Guards and shock troops —the Germans were perfectly sure they could drive the 'amateurs' back.

"It was a dramatic situation, for success meant that the Germans could probably push for Calais and other channel ports; but Foch dangled Paris before their eyes by putting raw Americans at a point across the direct road to Paris, in the pocket between Rheims and Soissons. Instead of driving back the 'amateurs,' the 'amateurs' drove them and gave them also a very sound thrashing. Their losses were very heavy, but they did the work, and in doing it also did three things: They saved Paris; they seriously injured the morale of the best German troops; and they set a standard and fixed a reputation for Ameri-

can troops that none other dared tarnish."

Such is the opinion of the head of a great news-gathering force regarding the achievements of the United States Marines at Chateau Thierry, where in the battle field of Bois de Belleau, now named the Bois de la Brigade de la Marine by official order of the French Staff, this branch of the Navy met the Germans and blocked their drive on Paris.

ORDERED TO FRONT ON MEMORIAL DAY.

It was on the evening of May 30, after a day dedicated to the memory of their comrades who had fallen in the training days and in the Verdun sector, that the Fifth and Sixth Regiments and the Sixth Machine Gun Battalion, United States Marines, each received the following orders:

"Advance information official received that this regiment will move at 10 p. m. 30 May by bus to new area. All trains shall be loaded at once and arrangements hastened. Wagons, when loaded, will move to Serans to form train."

All through the night there was fevered activity among the Marines. Then, the next morning, the long trains of camions, busses, and trucks, each carrying its full complement of United States Marines, went forward on a road which at one place wound within less than 10 miles of Paris, toward Meaux and the fighting line.

Through the town of Meaux went the long line of camions and to the village of Montriel-aux-Lions, less than 4 miles from the rapidly advancing German line. On this trip the camions containing the Americans were the only traffic traveling in the direction of the Germans; everything else was going the other way—refugees, old men and women, small children, riding on every conceivable conveyance, many trudging along the side of the road driving a cow or calf before them, all of them covered with the white dust which the camion caravan was whirling up as it rolled along; along that road only one organization was advancing, the United States Marines.

GOT INTO LINE ON JUNE 2.

At last, their destination reached early on the morning of June 2, they disembarked, stiff and tired after a journey of more than 72 miles, but as they formed their lines and marched onward in the direction of the line they were to hold they were determined and cheerful. That evening the first field message from the Fourth Brigade to Maj. Gen. Omar Bundy, commanding the Second Division, went forward:

"Second Battalion, Sixth Marines, in line from Le Thiolet through Clarembauts Woods to Triangle to Lucy. Instructed to

The Gas Mask Adopted by the United States. Close up view of an American trooper accoutred with new style gas-mask. He penetrated a gas cloud, generated for the occasion, and came out unharmed, although it usually takes an experienced hand to put on a mask securely.

hold line. First Battalion, Sixth Marines, going into line from Lucy through Hill 142. Third Battalion in support at La Voie du Chatel, which is also the post command of the Sixth Marines. Sixth machine-gun battalion distributed at line."

Meanwhile the Fifth Regiment was moving into line, machine guns were advancing, and the artillery taking its position. That night the men and officers of the Marines slept in the open, many of them in a field

Funeral of first Americans to die in France. Impressive rituals marked the burial of Corporal James D. Gresham, Private Thomas F. Enright and Private Merle D. Hay, of Company F, 16th Infantry.

that was green with unharvested wheat, awaiting the time when they should be summoned to battle. The next day at 5 o'clock, the afternoon of June 2, began the battle of Chateau Thierry, with the Americans holding the line against the most vicious wedge of the German advance.

BATTLE OF CHATEAU THIERRY.

The advance of the Germans was across a wheat field, driving at Hill 165 and advancing in smooth columns. The United States Marines, trained to keen observation upon the rifle range, nearly every one of them wearing marksman's medal or better, that of the sharpshooter or expert rifleman, did not wait for those gray-clad hordes to advance nearer. Calmly they set their sights and aimed with the same precision that they had shown upon the rifle ranges at Paris Island, Mare Island, and Quantico. Incessantly their rifles cracked, and with their fire came the support of the artillery. The machine-gun fire, incessant also, began to make its inroads upon the advancing forces. Closer and closer the shrapnel burst to its targets. Caught in a seething wave of machine-gun fire, of scattering shrapnel, of accurate rifle fire, the Germans found themselves in a position in which further advance could only mean absolute suicide. The lines hesitated. They

stopped. They broke for cover, while the Marines raked the woods and ravines in which they had taken refuge with machine gun and rifle to prevent them making another attempt to advance by infiltrating through. Above, a French airplane was checking up on the artillery fire. Surprised by the fact that men should deliberately set their sights, adjust their range, and then fire deliberately at an advancing foe, each man picking his target instead of firing merely in the direction of the enemy, the aviator signalled below "Bravo!" In the rear that word was echoed again and again. The German drive on Paris had been stopped.

Honoring Old Glory on German territory.

FIERCE FIGHTING IN BELLEAU WOOD.

For the next few days the fighting took on the character of pushing forth outposts and determining the strength of the enemy. Now, the fighting had changed. The Germans, mystified that they should have run against a stone wall of defense just when they believed that their advance would be easiest, had halted, amazed; then prepared to defend the positions they had won with all the stubbornness possible. In the black recesses of Belleau Wood the Germans had established nest after nest of machine guns. There in the jungle of matted underbrush, of vines, of heavy foliage, they had placed themselves in positions they believed impregnable. And this meant that unless they could be routed, unless they could be thrown back, the breaking of the line would be only a matter of time. There would come another drive and another. The battle of Chateau Thierry was therefore not won and could not be won until Belleau Wood had been cleared of the enemy.

It was June 6 that the attack of the American troops began against that wood and its adjacent surroundings, with the wood itself and the towns of Torcy and Bouresches forming the objectives. At 5 o'clock the attack came, and there began the tremendous sacrifices which the Marine Corps gladly suffered that the German fighters might be thrown back.

FOUGHT IN AMERICAN FASHION.

The Marines fought strictly according to American methods—a rush, a halt, a rush again, in four-wave formation, the rear waves taking over the work of those who had fallen before them, passing over the bodies of their dead comrades and plunging ahead, until they, too, should be torn to bits. But behind those waves were more waves, and the attack went on.

"Men fell like flies"; the expression is that of an officer writing from the field. Companies that had entered the battle 250 strong dwindled to 50 and 60, with a sergeant in command; but the attack did not falter. At 9:45 o'clock that night Bouresches was taken by Lieut. James F. Robertson and twenty-odd men of his platoon; these soon were joined by two reinforcing platoons. Then came the enemy counter attacks, but the Marines held.

CHARGING MACHINE-GUN NESTS.

In Belleau Wood the fighting had been literally from tree to tree, stronghold to stronghold; and it was a fight which must last for weeks before its accomplishment in victory. Belleau Wood was a jungle, its every rocky formation forming a German machine-gun nest, almost impossible to reach by artillery or grenade fire. There was only one way to wipe out these nests—by the bayonet. And by this method were they wiped out, for United States Marines, bare chested, shouting their battle cry of "E-e-e-e-e y-a-a-h-h-h yip!" charged straight into the murderous fire from those guns, and won! Out of the number that charged, in more than one instance, only one would reach the stronghold. There, with his bayonet as his only weapon, he would either kill or capture the defenders of the nest, and then swinging the gun

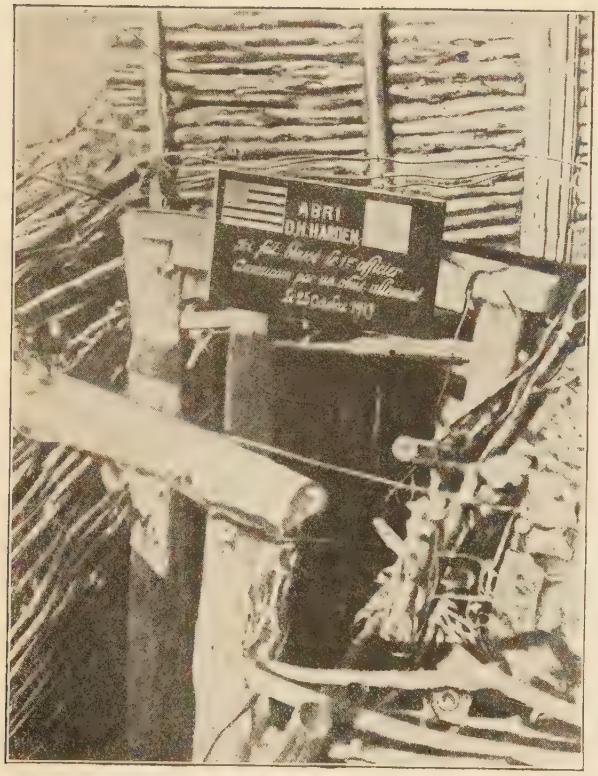
Paris gives wonderful reception to American troops.

about in its position, turn it against the remaining German positions in the forest. Such was the character of the fighting in Belleau Wood; fighting which continued until July 6, when after a short relief the invincible Americans finally were taken back to the rest billet for recuperation.

HELD THE LINE FOR MANY WEARY DAYS.

In all the history of the Marine Corps there is no such battle as that one in Belleau Wood. Fighting day and night without relief, without sleep, often without water, and for days without hot rations, the Marines met and defeated the best divisions that Germany could throw into the line. The heroism and doggedness of that battle are unparalleled. Time after time officers seeing their lines cut to pieces, seeing their men so dog tired that they even fell asleep under shell fire, hearing their wounded calling for the water that they were unable to supply, seeing men fight on after they had been wounded and until they dropped unconscious; time after time officers seeing these things, believing that the very limit of human endurance had been reached, would send back messages to their post command that their men were exhausted. But in answer to this would come the word that the lines must hold, and if possible those lines must attack, and the lines obeyed. Without water, without food, without rest they went forward—and forward every time to victory. Companies had been so torn and lacerated by losses that they were hardly platoons; but they held their lines and advanced them. In more than one case companies lost every officer, leaving a sergeant and sometimes a corporal to command, and the advance continued. After 13 days in this inferno of fire a captured German of-

The American Red Cross workers at this station are feeding the Saloniki refugees, who are sheltered in the tents that dot the plain.



Where first American officer was wounded in France. Lieut. De Vere H. Harden, of the Signal Corps, is the man who was wounded, and his distinction is a noteworthy one.

ficer told with his dying breath of a fresh division of Germans that was about to be thrown into the battle to attempt to wrest from the Marines that part of the wood they had gained. The Marines, who for days had been fighting on their sheer nerve, who had been worn out from nights of sleeplessness, from lack of rations, from terrific shell and machine-gun fire, straightened their lines and prepared for the attack. It came—as the dying German officer had predicted.

GERMAN CRACK TROOPS REPULSED AND BEATEN.

At 2 o'clock on the morning of June 13 it was launched by the Germans along the whole front. Without regard for men, the enemy hurled his forces against Bouresches and the Bois de Belleau, and sought to win back what had been taken from Germany by the Americans. The orders were that these positions must be taken at all costs; that the utmost losses in men must be endured that the Bois de Belleau and Bouresches might fall again into German hands. But the depleted lines of the Marines held; the men who had fought on their nerve alone for days once more showed the mettle of which they were made. With their backs to the trees and boulders of the Bois de Belleau, with their sole shelter the scattered ruins of Bouresches, the thinning lines of the Marines repelled the attack and crashed back the new division which had sought to wrest the position from them.

And so it went. Day after day, night after night, while time after time messages like the following traveled to the post command:

"Losses heavy. Difficult to get runners through. Some have never returned. Morale excellent, but troops about all in. Men exhausted."

Exhausted, but holding on. And they continued to hold on in spite of every difficulty. Advancing their lines slowly day by day, the Marines finally prepared their positions to such an extent that the last rush for the possession of the wood could be made. Then, on June 24, following a tremendous barrage, the struggle began.

The barrage literally tore the woods to pieces, but even its immensity could not wipe out all the nests that remained; the emplacements that were behind almost every clump of bushes, every jagged, rough group of boulders. But those that re-

The grave of Lieut. Quentin Roosevelt, aviator, and son of ex-President Roosevelt, who was killed during an air raid over enemy lines on July 14 last, has been located in France.

mained were wiped out by the American method of the rush and the bayonet, and in the days that followed every foot of Belleau Wood was cleared of the enemy and held by the frayed lines of the Americans.

PRAISE FROM FRENCH STAFF

It was, therefore, with the feeling of work well done that the depleted lines of the Marines were relieved in July, that they might be filled with replacements and made ready for the grand offensive in the vicinity of Soissons, July 18. And in recognition of their sacrifice and bravery this praise was forthcoming from the French:

"ARMY HEADQUARTERS, *June 30, 1918.*

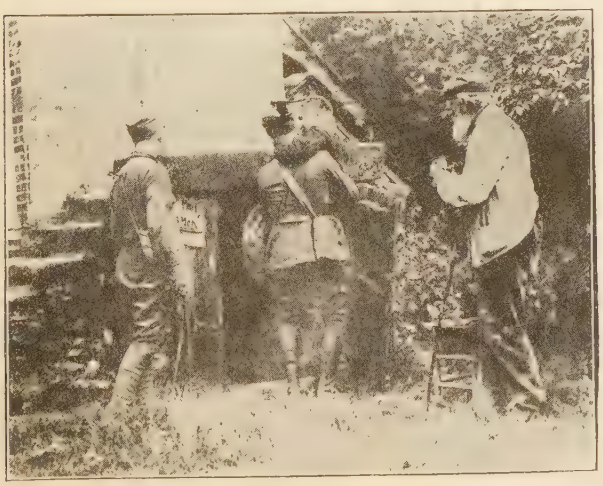
In view of the brilliant conduct of the Fourth Brigade of the Second United States Division, which in a spirited fight took Bouresches and the important strong point of Bois de Belleau, stubbornly defended by a large enemy force, the general commanding the Sixth Army orders that henceforth, in all official papers, the Bois de Belleau shall be named 'Bois de la Brigade de Marine.'

"DIVISION GENERAL DEGOUTTE,

"*Commanding Sixth Army.*"

GEN. PERSHING PERSONALLY CONGRATULATES MARINES

Gen. Pershing's congratulations also were contained in the following order, issued by the brigade commander, dated June 9, 1918, to the units of his command:



A member of an American Field Battalion is shown carrying an aged French woman into a cellar while a Hun air raid is going on.

Husky Americans landing at Bordeaux.

"The brigade commander takes pride in announcing that, in addition to the commander in chief's telegram of congratulation to the Fourth Brigade, published in an indorsement from the division commander, dated June 9, Gen. Pershing has today visited division headquarters and sent his personal greetings and congratulations to the Marine Brigade. He also added that Gen. Foch, commander in chief of the allied armies in France, especially charged him this morning to give the Marine Brigade his love and congratulations on their fine work of the past week.

"By command of Brig. Gen. Harbord.

"H. LAY, *Major, Adjutant.*"

GEN. HARBORD'S COMMENDATION

On July 18 the Marines were again called into action in the vicinity of Soissons, near Tigny and Vierzy. In the face of a murderous fire from concentrated machine guns, which contested every foot of their

advance, the United States Marines moved forward until the severity of their casualties necessitated that they dig in and hold the positions they had gained. Here, again, their valor called forth official praise, which came in the following:

"General Orders, No. 46.

"It is with keen pride that the divisional commander transmits to the command the congratulations and affectionate greetings of Gen. Pershing, who visited the divisional headquarters last night. His praise of the gallant work of the division on the 18th and 19th is echoed by the French high command, the Third Corps commander, American Expeditionary Forces, and in a telegram from the former divisional commander. In spite of two sleepless nights, long marches through rain and mud, and the discomfort of hunger and thirst, the division attacked side by side with the gallant First Moroccan Division, and maintained itself with credit. You advanced over 6 miles, captured over 3,000 prisoners, 11 batteries of artillery, over 100 machine guns, minnenwerfers, and supplies. The Second Division has sustained the best traditions of the Regular Army and the Marine Corps. The story of your achievements will be told in millions of homes in all allied nations tonight.

"J. G. HARBORD,
"*Major General, N. A.*
"FRANCE, *July 21.*"

American troops learning how to go "over the top." With veterans of the battlefield as instructors, and their native dash, they soon made good soldiers.

IN BATTLE FOR ST. MIHIEL SALIENT

Then came the battle for the St. Mihiel salient. On the night of September 11 the Second Division took over a line running from Remenauville to Limey, and on the night of September 14 and the morning of September 15 attacked, with two days' objectives ahead of them. Overcoming the enemy resistance, they romped through to the Rupt de Mad, a small river, crossed it on stone bridges, occupied Thiacourt, the

first day's objective, scaled the heights just beyond it, pushed on to a line running from the Zammes-Jouiney Ridges to the Binvaux Forest, and there rested, with the second day's objectives occupied by 2:50 o'clock of the first day. The casualties of the division were about 1,000, of which 134 were killed. Of these, about half were Marines. The captures in which the Marines participated were 80 German officers, 3,200 men, ninety-odd cannon, and vast swept the enemy from the field.

"JOHN A. LEJEUNE,

"Major General,

"United States Marine Corps."

CAPTURE OF BLANC MONT RIDGE

But even further honors were to befall the fighting, landing, and building force, of which the Navy is justly proud. In the early part of October it became necessary

United States nurses arriving in England on their way to France. The wonderfully humane work done by the nurses at the front was the subject of hearty praise by General Pershing.

stores. In his congratulations, following the battle, Gen. Lejeune said:

"SEPTEMBER 17, 1918.

"General Orders, No. 54.

"I desire to express to the officers and men my profound appreciation of their brilliant and successful attack in the recent engagement.

"Our division maintained the prestige and honor of the country proudly and

for the allies to capture the bald, jagged ridge 20 miles due east of Rheims, known as Blanc Mont Ridge. Here the armies of Germany and the allies had clashed more than once, and attempt after attempt had been made to wrest it from German hands. It was a keystone of the German defense, the fall of which would have a far-reaching effect upon the enemy armies. To the glory of the United States Marines, let it be said, that they were again a part of that

splendid Second Division which swept forward in the attack which freed Blanc Mont Ridge from German hands, pushed its way down the slopes, and occupied the level ground just beyond, thus assuring a victory, the full import of which can best be judged by the order of Gen. Lejeune, following the battle:

"FRANCE, *October 11, 1918.*

"Officers and men of the Second Division:

"It is beyond my power of expression to describe fitly my admiration for your heroism. You attacked magnificently and you seized Blanc Mont Ridge, the keystone of the arch constituting the enemy's main position. You advanced beyond the ridge, breaking the enemy's lines, and you held the ground gained with a tenacity which is unsurpassed in the annals of war.

"As a direct result of your victory, the German armies east and west of Rheims are in full retreat, and by drawing on yourselves several German divisions from other parts of the front you greatly assisted the victorious advance of the allied armies between Cambrai and St. Quentin.

"Your heroism and the heroism of our comrades who died on the battle field will live in history forever, and will be emulated by the young men of our country for generations to come.

Americans Going Forward to the first line trenches. Troops of the 7th Infantry are climbing aboard trucks of the Motor Transport Service on the way to the firing line, relieving those who have already ridden part of the way.

"To be able to say when this war is finished, 'I belonged to the Second Division; I fought with it at the Battle of Blanc Mont Ridge,' will be the highest honor that can come to any man.

"JOHN A. LEJEUNE,

"Major General,

"United States Marine Corps,

"Commanding."

MARKSMANSHIP AMAZES ALLIES

Thus it is that the United States Marines have fulfilled the glorious traditions of their corps in this their latest duty as the "soldiers who go to sea." Their sharpshooting—and in one regiment 93 per cent of the men wear the medal of marksmanship, a sharpshooter, or an expert rifleman—has amazed soldiers of European armies, accustomed merely to shooting in the general direction of the enemy. Under the fiercest fire they have calmly adjusted their sights, aimed for their man, and killed him, and in bayonet attacks their advance on machine gun nests has been irresistible. In the official citation lists more than one American Marine is credited with taking an enemy machine gun single handed, bayoneting its crew and then turning the gun against the foe. In one battle alone, that of Belleau Wood, the citation lists bear the names of fully 500 United States marines who so distinguished themselves in battle as to call forth the official commendation of their superior officers.

German Trenches Captured by the Allies.

CORPS FULFILLED EVERY GLORIOUS TRADITION

More than faithful in every emergency, accepting hardships with admirable morale, proud of the honor of taking their place as shock troops for the American legions, they have fulfilled every glorious tradition of their corps, and they have given to the world a list of heroes whose names will go down to all history. Let one, therefore, stand for the many, one name denote all, one act of heroism tell the story of the countless deeds of bravery that stand forth brilliantly upon the victorious pages of America's participation in this the world's greatest war:

"First Sergt. Daniel Daly, Seventy-third (Machine Gun) Company, twice holder of the medal of honor, repeatedly performed deeds of valor and great service. On June 5 he extinguished, at risk of his life, fire in the ammunition dump at Lucy-le-Bocage. On June 7, while sector was under one of its heaviest bombardments, he visited all gun crews of his company, then posted over a wide section of front, cheering the men. On June 10, single-handed, he attacked enemy machine-gun emplacement and captured it by use of hand grenades and his automatic pistol. On the same date, during enemy attack on Bouresches, he brought in wounded under fire. At all times, by his reckless daring, constant attention to the wants of his men, and his unquenchable optimism, he was a tower of strength until wounded by enemy shrapnel fire on June 20. A peerless soldier of the old school, twice decorated for gallantry in China and Santo Domingo."

I must add this citation of a typical deed of self-sacrifice, illustrative of the spirit of the noble privates in the corps:

"Pvt. Albert E. Brooks, Company F, Sixth Marines: Conspicuous for his heroic action in placing his body in front of his platoon leader while under heavy machine-gun fire in order to dress the latter's wounds. He was shot twice in the hip while performing this act of mercy."

W. R. P.

Actual Photo of American Machine Gun Troops Operating From German Second Line in Great Cantigny Advance.

American Expeditionary Forces

By

John J. Pershing

A remarkable summary of the operations of the American Expeditionary Force in France from the date of its organization, May 26, 1917, to the signing of the armistice November 11, 1918, was cabled to the Secretary of War by General Pershing on November 20, 1918. His account of the active military operations was as follows:

COMBAT OPERATIONS

During our period of training in the trenches some of our divisions had engaged the enemy in local combats, the most important of which was Seicheprey by the 26th on April 20, 1918, in the Toul sector, but none had participated in action as a unit. The 1st Division, which had passed through the preliminary stages of training, had gone to the trenches for its first period of instruction at the end of October, and by March 21, when the German offensive in Picardy began, we had four divisions with experience in the trenches, all of which were equal to any demands of battle action. The crisis which this offensive developed was such that our occupation of an American sector must be postponed.

On March 28 I placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch, who had been agreed upon as Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Armies, all of our forces to be used as he might decide. At his request the 1st Division was transferred from the Toul sector to a position in reserve at Chaumont en Vexin. As German superiority in numbers required prompt action, an agreement was reached at the Abbeville conference of the allied premiers and commanders and myself on May 2 by which the British shipping was to transport ten American divisions to the British army area, where they were to be trained and equipped, and additional British shipping was to be provided for as many divisions as possible for use elsewhere.

On April 26 the 1st Division had gone into the line in the Montdidier salient on the Picardy battle front. Tactics had been suddenly revolutionized to those of open warfare, and our men, confident of the results of their training, were eager for the test. On the morning of May 28 this division attacked the commanding German position in its front, taking with splendid dash the town of Cantigny and all other objectives, which were organized and held steadfastly against vicious counterattacks and galling artillery fire. Although local, this brilliant action had an electrical effect, as it demonstrated our fighting qualities under extreme battle conditions, and also that the enemy's troops were not altogether invincible.

The German Aisne offensive, which began on May 27, had advanced rapidly toward the River Marne and Paris, and the Allies faced a crisis equally as grave as that of the Picardy offensive in March. Again every available man was placed at Marshal Foch's disposal, and the 3rd Division, which had just come from its preliminary training in the trenches, was hurried to the Marne. Its motorized machine-gun battalion preceded the other units and successfully held the bridgehead at the Marne, opposite Chateau-Thierry. The 2nd Division, in reserve near Montdidier, was sent by motor trucks and other available transport to check the progress of the enemy toward Paris. The division attacked and retook the town and railroad station at Bouresches and sturdily held its ground against the enemy's best guard divisions. In the battle of Belleau Wood, which followed, our men proved their superiority and gained a strong tactical position, with far greater loss to the enemy than to ourselves. On July 1, before the Second was relieved, it captured the village of Vaux with most splendid precision.

Meanwhile our 2nd Corps, under Major-General George B. Read, had been organized for the command of our divisions with the British, which were held back in training areas or assigned to second-line defenses. Five of

the ten divisions were withdrawn from the British area in June, three to relieve divisions in Lorraine and in the Vosges and two to the Paris area to join the group of American divisions which stood between the city and any further advance of the enemy in that direction.

BATTLE OF CHATEAU-THIERRY

The great June, July troop movement from the States was well under way, and, although these troops were to be given some preliminary training before being put into action, their very presence warranted the use of all the older divisions in the confidence that we did not lack reserves. Elements of the 42d Division were in the line east of Rheims against the German offensive of July 15, and held their ground unflinchingly. On the right flank of this offensive four companies of the 28th Division were in position in face of the advancing waves of the German infantry. The 3rd Division was holding the bank of the Marne from the bend east of the mouth of the Surmélin to the west of Mézy, opposite Chateau Thierry, where a large force of German infantry sought to force a passage under support of powerful artillery concentrations and under cover of smoke screens. A single regiment of the 3rd wrote one of the most brilliant pages in our military annals on this occasion. It prevented the crossing at certain points on its front while, on either flank, the Germans, who had gained a footing, pressed forward. Our men, firing in three directions, met the German attacks with counterattacks at critical points and succeeded in throwing two German divisions into complete confusion, capturing 600 prisoners.

The great force of the German Chateau-Thierry offensive established the deep Marne salient, but the enemy was taking chances, and the vulnerability of this pocket to attack might be turned to his disadvantage. Seizing this opportunity to support my conviction, every division with any sort of training was made available for use in a counteroffensive. The place of honor in the thrust toward Soissons on July 18 was given to our 1st and 2nd Divisions in company with chosen French divisions. Without the usual brief warning of a preliminary bombardment, the massed French and American artillery, firing by the map, laid down its rolling barrage at dawn while the infantry began its charge. The tactical handling of our troops under these trying conditions was excellent throughout the action. The enemy brought up large numbers of reserves and made a stubborn defense, both with machine guns and artillery, but through five days' fighting the 1st Division continued to advance until it had gained the heights above Soissons and captured the village of Berzy-le-Sec. The 2d Division took 'Beau Repaire farm and Vierzy in a very rapid advance and reached a position in front of Tigny at the end of its second day. These two divisions captured 7,000 prisoners and over 100 pieces of artillery.

The 26th Division, which, with a French division, was under command of our 1st Corps, acted as a pivot of the movement toward Soissons. On the 18th it took the village of Torcy while the 3d Division was crossing the Marne in pursuit of the retiring enemy. The 26th attacked again on the 21st, and the enemy withdrew past the Chateau-Thierry-Soissons road. The 3d Division, continuing its progress, took the heights of Mont St. Pere and the villages of Charteves and Jaulgonne in the face of both machine gun and artillery fire.

On the 24th, after the Germans had fallen back from Trugny and Epieds, our 42d Division, which had been brought over from the Champagne, relieved the 26th, and fighting its way through the Foret de Fère, overwhelmed the nest of machine guns in its path. By the 27th it had reached the Ourcq, whence the 3d and 4th Divisions were already advancing, while the French divisions with which we were co-operating were moving forward at other points.

The 3d Division had made its advance into Roncheres Wood on the 29th and was relieved for rest by a brigade of the Thirty-second. The Forty-second and Thirty-second undertook the task of conquering the heights beyond Cierges, the Forty-second capturing Sergy and the Thirty-second capturing Hill 230, both American divisions joining in the pursuit of the enemy to the Vesle, and thus the operation of reducing the salient was finished. Meanwhile the Forty-second was relieved by the Fourth at Chery-Chartreuve, and the Thirty-second by the Twenty-eighth, while the Seventy-seventh Division took up a position on the Vesle. The operations of these divisions on the Vesle were under the 3rd Corps, Major-General Robert L. Bullard commanding.

BATTLE OF ST. MIHIEL

With the reduction of the Marne salient, we could look forward to the concentration of our divisions in our own zone. In view of the forthcoming operation against the St. Mihiel salient, which had long been planned as our first offensive action on a large scale, the First Army was organized on August 10 under my personal command. While American units had held different divisional and corps sectors

along the western front, there had not been up to this time, for obvious reasons, a distinct American sector; but, in view of the important parts the American forces were now to play, it was necessary to take over a permanent portion of the line. Accordingly, on August 30, the line beginning at Port sur Seille, east of the Moselle and extending to the west through St. Mihiel, thence north to a point opposite Verdun, was placed under my command. The American sector was afterward extended across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne Forest, and included the 2d Colonial French, which held the point of the salient, and the 17th French Corps, which occupied the heights above Verdun.

The preparation for a complicated operation against the formidable defenses in front of us included the assembling of divisions and of corps and army artillery, transport, aircraft, tanks, ambulances, the location of hospitals, and the molding together of all of the elements of a great modern army with its own railroads, supplied directly by our own Service of Supply. The concentration for this operation, which was to be a surprise, involved the movement, mostly at night, of approximately 600,000 troops, and required for its success the most careful attention to every detail.

The French were generous in giving us assistance in corps and army artillery, with its personnel, and we were confident from the start of our superiority over the enemy in guns of all calibers. Our heavy guns were able to reach Metz and to interfere seriously with German rail movements. The French Independent Air Force was placed under my command which, together with the British bombing squadrons and our air forces, gave us the largest assembly of aviation that had ever been engaged in one operation on the western front.

From Les Eparges around the nose of the salient at St. Mihiel to the Moselle River the line was roughly forty miles long and situated on commanding ground greatly strengthened by artificial defenses. Our 1st Corps (82d, 90th, 5th and 2d Divisions), under the command of Major-General Hunter Liggett, restrung its right on Pont-a-Mousson, with its left joining our 3rd Corps (the 89th, 42nd and 1st Divisions), under Major-General Joseph T. Dickman, in line to Xivray, were to swing toward Vigneulles on the pivot of the Moselle River for the initial assault. From Xivray to Mouilly the 2d Colonial French Corps was in line in the center, and our 5th Corps, under command of Major-General George H. Cameron, with our 26th Division and a French division at the western base of the salient, were to attack three different hills—Les Eparges, Combres and Amaranthe. Our 1st Corps had in reserve the 78th Division, our 4th Corps the 3d Division, and our First Army the 35th and 91st Divisions, with the 80th and 33d available. It should be understood that our corps organizations are very elastic, and that we have at no time had permanent assignments of divisions to corps.

After four hours' artillery preparations, the seven American divisions in the front line advanced at 5 a. m. on September 12, assisted by a limited number of tanks manned partly by Americans and partly by French. These divisions, accompanied by groups of wire cutters and others armed with bangalore torpedoes, went through the successive bands of barbed wire that protected the enemy's front line and support trenches, in irresistible waves on schedule time, breaking down all defense of an enemy demoralized by the great volume of our artillery fire and our sudden approach out of the fog.

Our 1st Corps advanced to Thiaucourt, while our 4th Corps curved back to the southwest through Nonsard. The 2d Colonial French Corps made the slight advance required of it on very difficult ground, and the 5th Corps took its three ridges and repulsed a counter-attack. A rapid march brought reserve regiments of a division of the 5th Corps into Vigneules in the early morning, where it linked up with patrols of our 4th Corps, closing the salient and forming a new line west of Thiaucourt to Vigneulles and beyond Fresnes-en-Woevre. At the cost of only 7,000 casualties, mostly light, we had taken 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns, a great quantity of material, released the inhabitants of many villages from enemy domination, and established our lines in a position to threaten Metz. This signal success of the American First Army in its first offensive was of prime importance. The Allies found that they had a formidable army to aid them, and the enemy learned finally that he had one to reckon with.

MEUSE-ARGONNE OFFENSIVE, FIRST PHASE

On the day after we had taken the St. Mihiel salient, much of our corps and army artillery which had operated at St. Mihiel, and our divisions in reserve at other points, were already on the move toward the area back of the line between the Meuse River and the western edge of the forest of Argonne. With the exception of St. Mihiel, the old German front line from Switzerland to the east of Rheims was still intact. In the general attack all along the line, the operation assigned the American Army as the hinge of this allied offensive was directed toward the important railroad com-

munications of the German armies through Mezieres and Sedan. The enemy must hold fast to this part of his lines or the withdrawal of his forces with four years' accumulation of plants and material would be dangerously imperiled.

The German Army had as yet shown no demoralization, and, while the mass of its troops had suffered in morale, its first-class divisions, and notably its machine-gun defense, were exhibiting remarkable tactical efficiency as well as courage. The German General Staff was fully aware of the consequences of a success on the Meuse-Argonne line. Cer-

screened by dense thickets, had been generally considered impregnable. Our order of battle from right to left was the 3d Corps from the Meuse to Malancourt, with the 33d, 80th and 4th divisions in line, and the 3d Division as corps reserve; the 5th Corps from Malancourt to Vauquois, with 79th, 87th and 91st Divisions in line, and the 32d in corps reserve, and the 1st Corps, from Vauquois to Vienne le Chateau, with 35th, 28th and 77th Divisions in line, and the 92d in corps reserve. The army reserve consisted of the 1st, 29th and 82d Divisions.

On the night of September 25 our troops

French and Americans Advance to Grenade Attack These staunch allies are shown crossing No Man's Land somewhere on the front in France. They are moving cautiously, ready to use the grenades they are carrying in the sacks slung over their shoulders.

tain that he would do everything in his power to oppose us, the action was planned with as much secrecy as possible and was undertaken with the determination to use all our divisions in forcing decision. We expected to draw the best German divisions to our front and to consume them while the enemy was held under grave apprehension lest our attack should break his line, which it was our firm purpose to do.

Our right flank was protected by the Meuse, while our left embraced the Argonne Forest whose ravines, hills, and elaborate defense,

quietly took the place of the French, who thinly held the line of this sector, which had long been inactive. In the attack which began on the 26th we drove through the barbed wire entanglements and the sea of shell craters across No Man's Land, mastering all the first-line defences. Continuing on the 27th and 28th, against machine guns and artillery of an increasing number of enemy reserve divisions, we penetrated to a depth of from three to seven miles and took the village of Montfaucon and its commanding hill and Exermont, Gercourt, Cuisy, Septsarges, Malan-

court, Ivoiry, Epinonville, Charpentry, Very and other villages. East of the Meuse one of our divisions, which was with the 2d Colonial French Corps, captured Marcheville and Rieville, giving further protection to the flank of our main body. We had taken 10,000 prisoners, we had gained our point of forcing the battle into the open, and were prepared for the enemy's reaction, which was bound to come, as he had good roads and ample railroad facilities for bringing up his artillery and reserves.

In the chill rain of dark nights our engineers had to build new roads across spongy shell-torn areas, repair broken roads beyond No Man's Land, and build bridges. Our gunners, with no thought of sleep, put their shoulders to wheels and drag-ropes to bring their guns through the mire in support of the infantry, now under the increasing fire of the enemy's artillery. Our attack had taken the enemy by surprise, but quickly recovering himself, he began to fire counterattacks in strong force, supported by heavy bombardments, with large quantities of gas. From September 28 until October 4 we maintained the offensive against patches of woods defended by snipers and continuous lines of machine guns, and pushed forward our guns and transport, seizing strategical points in preparation for further attacks.

OTHER UNITS WITH ALLIES

Other divisions attached to the allied armies were doing their part. It was the fortune of our 2d Corps, composed of the 27th and 30th Divisions, which had remained with the British, to have a place of honor in coöperation with the Australian Corps on September 29 and October 1 in the assault on the Hindenburg Line where the St. Quentin Canal passes through a tunnel under a ridge. The 30th Division speedily broke through the main line of defense for all its objectives, while the 27th pushed on impetuously through the main line until some of its elements reached Gouy. In the midst of the maze of trenches and shell craters and under crossfire from machine guns the other elements fought desperately against odds. In this and in later actions, from October 6 to October 19, our 2d Corps captured over 6,000 prisoners and advanced over thirteen miles. The spirit and aggressiveness of these divisions have been highly praised by the British Army commander under whom they served.

On October 2-9 our 2d and 36th Divisions were sent to assist the French in an important attack against the old German positions before Rheims. The 2d conquered the complicated defense works on their front against a persistent defense worthy of the grimmest period of trench warfare and attacked the strongly held wooded hill of Blanc Mont, which they captured in a second assault, sweeping over it with consummate dash and skill. This division then repulsed strong counterattacks before the village and cemetery of Ste. Etienne and took the town, forcing the Germans to fall back from before Rheims and yield positions they had held since September, 1914. On October 9 the 36th Division relieved the 2d, and in its first experience under fire withstood very severe artillery bombardment and rapidly took up the pursuit of the enemy, now retiring behind the Aisne.

MEUSE-ARGONNE OFFENSIVE, SECOND PHASE

The allied progress elsewhere cheered the efforts of our men in this crucial contest, as the German command threw in more and more first-class troops to stop our advance. We made steady headway in the almost impenetrable and strongly held Argonne Forest, for, despite this reinforcement, it was our army that was doing the driving. Our aircraft was increasing in skill and numbers and forcing the issue, and our infantry and artillery were improving rapidly with each new experience. The replacements fresh from home were put into exhausted divisions with little time for training, but they had the advantage of serving beside men who knew their business and who had almost become veterans overnight. The enemy had taken every advantage of the terrain, which especially favored the defense by a prodigal use of machine guns manned by highly trained veterans and by using his artillery at short ranges. In the face of such strong frontal positions we should have been unable to accomplish and progress according to previously accepted standards, but I had every confidence in our aggressive tactics and the courage of our troops.

On October 4 the attack was renewed all along our front. The 3d Corps, tilting to the left, followed the Brieulles-Cunel Road; our 5th Corps took Gesnes, while the 1st Corps advanced for over two miles along the irregular valley of the Aire River and in the wooded hills of the Argonne that bordered the river, used by the enemy with all his art and weapons of defense. This sort of fighting continued against an enemy striving to hold every foot of ground and whose very strong counterattacks challenged us at every point. On the 7th the 1st Corps captured Chatel-Chéhéry and continued along the river to Cornay. On the east of the Meuse sector one of the two divisions coöperating with the

French, captured Consenvoye and the Haumont Woods. On the 9th the 5th Corps, in its progress up the Aire, took Fléville, and the 3d Corps, which had continuous fighting against odds, was working its way through Brieulles and Cunel. On the 10th we had cleared the Argonne Forest of the enemy.

It was now necessary to constitute a second army, and on October 9 the immediate command of the First Army was turned over to Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett. The command of the Second Army, whose divisions occupied a sector in the Woevre, was given to Lieut.-Gen. Robert L. Bullard, who had been commander of the 1st Division and then of the 3d Corps. Major-Gen. Dickman was transferred to the command of the 1st Corps, while the 5th Corps was placed under Major-Gen. Charles P. Summerall, who had recently commanded the 1st Division. Major-Gen. John L. Hines, who had gone rapidly up from regimental to division commander, was assigned to the 3d Corps. These four officers had been in France from the early days of the expedition and had learned their lessons in the school of practical warfare.

Our constant pressure against the enemy brought day by day more prisoners, mostly survivors from machine-gun nests captured in fighting at close quarters. On October 18 there was very fierce fighting in the Caures Woods east of the Meuse and in the Ormont Woods. On the 14th the 1st Corps took St. Juvin, and the 5th Corps, in hand-to-hand encounters, entered the formidable Kriemhilde line, where the enemy had hoped to check us indefinitely. Later the 5th Corps penetrated further the Kriemhilde line, and the 1st Corps took Champignuelles and the important town of Grandpre. Our dogged offensive was wearing down the enemy, who continued desperately to throw his best troops against us, thus weakening his line in front of our Allies and making their advance less difficult.

DIVISIONS IN BELGIUM.

Meanwhile we were not only able to continue the battle, but our 37th and 91st Divisions were hastily withdrawn from our front and dispatched to help the French Army in Belgium. Detraining in the neighborhood of Ypres, these divisions advanced by rapid stages to the fighting line and were assigned to adjacent French corps. On October 31, in continuation of the Flanders offensive, they attacked and methodically broke down all enemy resistance. On Nov. 3, the 37th had completed its mission in dividing the enemy across the Escaut River and firmly established itself along the east bank included in the division zone of action. By a clever flanking movement troops of the 91st Division captured Spitaals Bosschen, a diffcult wood extending across the central part of the division sector, reached the Escaut, and penetrated into the town of Audenarde. These divisions received high commendation from their corps commanders for their dash and energy.

MEUSE-ARGONNE—LAST PHASE.

On the 23d the 3d and 5th Corps pushed northward to the level of Bantheville. While we continued to press forward and throw back the enemy's violent counterattacks with great loss of morale by the enemy game our men more der way for the final assault. Evidences of loss of morale by the enemyga ve our men more confidence in attack and more fortitude in enduring the fatigue of incessant effort and the hardships of very inclement weather.

With comparatively well-rested divisions, the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on November 1. Our increased artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance, and the enemy broke before the determined infantry, which, by its persistent fighting of the past weeks and the dash of this attack, had overcome his will to resist. The 3d Corps toook Ancreville, Doulcon and Andevanne, and the 5th Corps took Landres et St. Georges and passed through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville and Chennery. On the 2d the 1st Corps joined in the movement, which now became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed.

On the 3d advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. The 1st Corps reached Authe and Châtillon-Sur-Bar,, the 5th Corps, Fosse and Nouart, and the 3d Corps, Halles, penetrating the enemy's lines to a depth of twelve miles. Our large-caliber guns had advanced and were skilfully brought into position to fire upon the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon and Conflans. Our 3d Corps crossed the Meuse on the 5th and the other corps, in the full confidence that the day was theirs, eagerly cleared the way of machine guns as they swept northward, maintaining complete coördination throughout. On the 6th, a division of the 1st Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications, and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster.

In all forty enemy divisions had been used against us in the Meuse-Argonne battle. Be-

tween September 26 and November 6 we took 26,059 prisoners and 468 guns on this front. Our divisions engaged were the 1st, 3d, 4th, 5th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 32d, 33d, 35th, 37th, 42d, 77th, 78th, 79th, 80th, 82d, 89th, 90th and 91st. Many of our divisions remained in line for a length of time that requires nerves of steel, while others were sent in again after only a few days of rest. The 1st, 5th, 26th, 77th, 80th, 89th and 90th were in the line twice. Although some of the divisions were fighting their first battle, they soon became equal to the best.

OPERATIONS EAST OF THE MEUSE

On the three days preceding November 10, the 3d, the 2d Colonial and the 17th French Corps fought a difficult struggle through the Meuse Hills south of Stenay and forced the enemy into the plain. Meanwhile my plans for further use of the American forces contemplated an advance between the Meuse and the Moselle in the direction of Longwy by the First Army, while, at the same time, the Second Army should assure the offensive toward the rich coal fields of Briey. The operations were to be followed by an offensive toward Château-Salins east of the Moselle, thus isolating Metz. Accordingly, attacks on the American front had been ordered, and that of the Second Army was in progress on the morning of November 11, when instructions were received that hostilities should cease at 11 o'clock a. m.

At this moment the line of the American sector, from right to left, began at Port-sur-Seille, thence across the Moselle to Vandieres and through the Woevre to Bezonvaux, in the foothills of the Meuse, thence along to the foothills and through the northern edge of the Woevre forests to the Meus at Mouzay, thence along the Meuse connecting with the French under Sedan.

RELATIONS WITH THE ALLIES

Coöperation among the Allies has at all times been most cordial. A far greater effort has been put forth by the allied armies and staffs to assist us than could have been expected. The French Government and Army have always stood ready to furnish us with supplies, equipment and transportation and to aid us in every way. In the towns and hamlets wherever our troops have been stationed or billeted the French people have everywhere receivd them more as relatives and intimate friends than as soldiers of a foreign army. For these things words are quite inadequate to express our gratitude. There can be no doubt that the relations growing out of our associations here assure a permanent friendship between the two peoples. Although we have not been so intimately associated with the people of Great Britain, yet their troops and ours when thrown together have always warmly fraternized. The reception of those of our forces who have passed through England and of those who have been stationed there has always been enthusiastic. Altogether it has been deeply impressed upon us that the ties of language and blood bring the British and ourselves together completely and inseparably.

STRENGTH

There are in Europe altogether, including a regiment and some sanitary units with the Italian Army and the organizations at Murmansk, also including those en route from the States, approximately 2,053,347 men, less our losses. Of this total there are in France 1,338,169 combatant troops. Forty divisions have arrived of which the infantry personnel of ten have been used as replacements, leaving thirty divisions now in France organized into three armies of three corps each.

The losses of the Americans up to November 18 are: Killed and wounded, 36,145; died of disease, 14,811; deaths unclassified, 2,204; wounded, 179,625; prisoners, 2,163; missing, 1,160. We have captured about 44,000 prisoners and 1,400 guns, howitzers and trench mortars.

[General Pershing then highly praised the work of the General Staff, the Service of Supply, Medical Corps, Quartermaster Department, Ordnance Department, Signal Corps, Engineer Corps, and continued:]

Our aviators have no equals in daring or in fighting ability, and have left a record of courageous deeds that will ever remain a brilliant page in the annals of our army. While the Tank Corps has had limited opportunities, its personnel has responded gallantly on every possible occasion, and has shown courage of the highest order.

The navy in European waters has at all times most cordially aided the army, and it is most gratifying to report that there has never before been such perfect coöperation between these two branches of the service.

Finally, I pay supreme tribute to our officers and soldiers of the line. When I think of their heroism, their patience under hardships, their unflinching spirit of offensve action, I am filled wth emotion which I am unable to express. Their deeds are immortal, and they have earned the eternal gratitude of our country.

I am, Mr. Secretary, very respectfully,

JOHN J. PERSHING,
General, Commander-in-Chief,
American Expeditionary Forces.

To the Secretary of War.

The year 1915 may be described as the year of "Too late" for the allies, and especially for England, so far as land operations were concerned. The Gallipoli adventure is an illustration. During the winter a great naval attack upon the Dardanelles was planned and begun. It failed, with the loss of several vessels. Had it been inaugurated the year before it is believed it would have succeeded, as the usual Turkish slackness had neglected the fortifications. But the delay permitted Germany to send and place modern guns.

Then, on April 26, British, Australian and New Zealand forces landed for an attack on the land side. The campaign, which ran through the year, is a tale of heroism and blunders too long to tell here. Had the landing been a few weeks or even a few days earlier it might have succeeded, but it was again "too late." Victory is now believed to have been in sight at one time, but the opportunity was missed. On Jan. 9, '16 the attempt was finally given up.

American Officer and Private Win French Decorations. General Gaucher, of the French Army, is decorating an American officer and an American soldier for bravery in a recent bombardment.

Again, on March 10, the British drove at Neuve Chapelle and took it, but blunders were made which turned the victory into a practical defeat. Four days later, however, the Russians took Przemysl and stood in the Carpathian passes, and Hungary cried out for help against an imminent invasion.

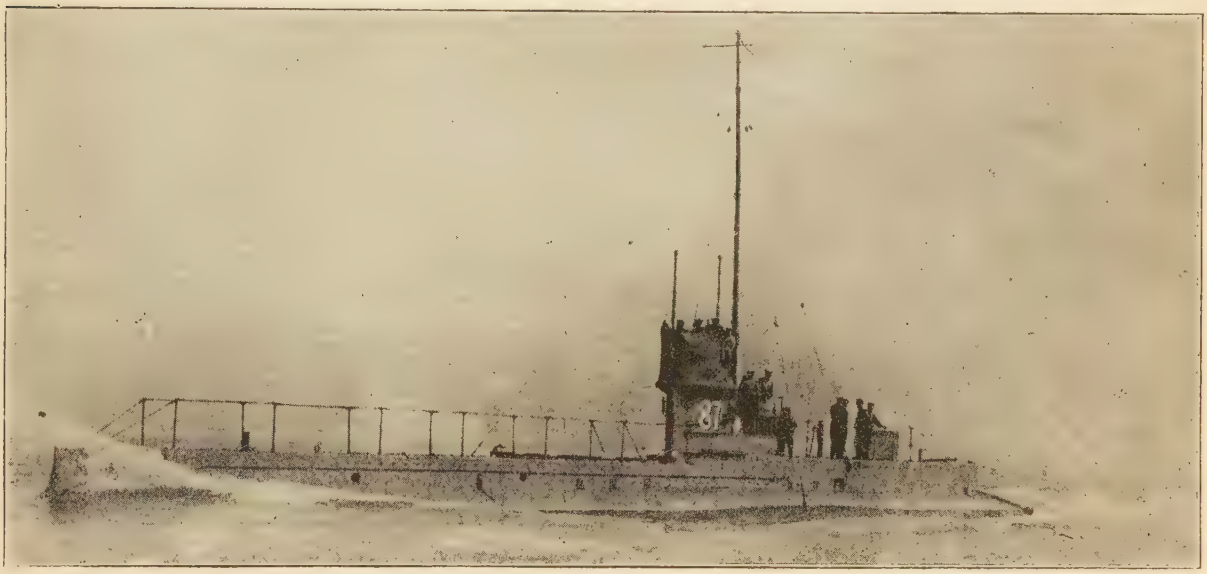
THE FALL OF WARSAW.

But in May the Huns, under Mackensen, broke the Russian line on the Dunajec, while Hindenburg drove through from Courland toward Warsaw. On June 23 the Russians were forced out of

On May 24, 1915, Italy had entered the war on the side of the allies. The timid statesmen who had been in power had to choose between fighting the Hun and revolution at home. Not for lack of zeal and courage, but because of topographical conditions Italy was able to accomplish little this year.

In 1866 Italy had obtained Venetia as a reward for siding with Prussia against Austria. Berlin took care that its prospective ally should get the best of its actual ally in the boundary drawing.

The line was so fixed along the Carnic Alps as to be easily defended by Austria



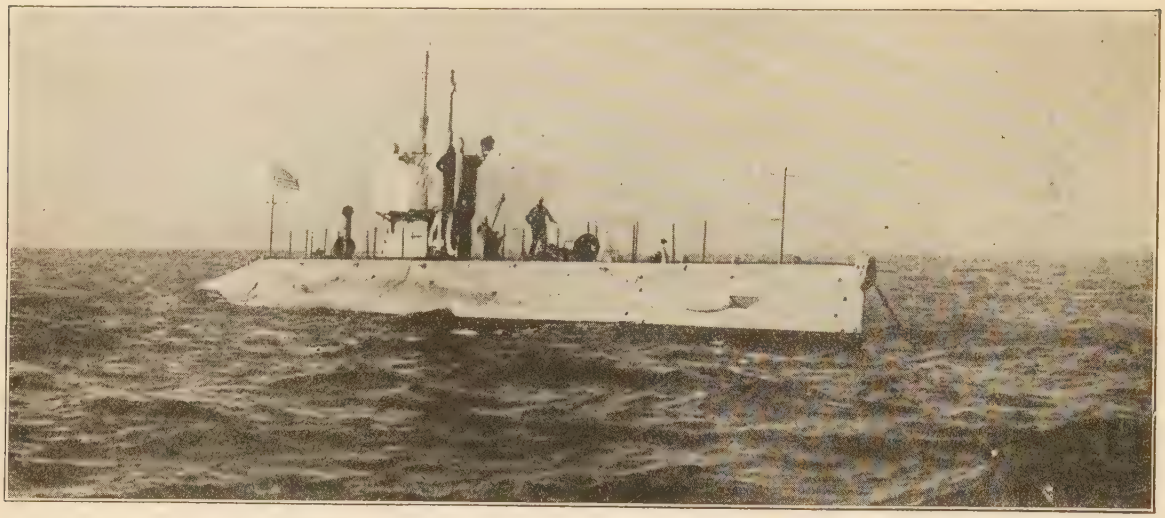
One of the later types of British Submersible, The "E-87."

Lemberg; on Aug. 5 Warsaw fell, and on Aug. 25 the Germans took Brest-Litovsk, and a few days later drove the Russians across the Dwina. Except for occasional advances to Galicia, the Russians did little more in the Polish theater.

After the fall of Warsaw the Grand Duke Nicholas was displaced from command and sent to the Caucasus, whence he was to accomplish something against the Turks the next year. But with the retreat beyond the Dwina, the Russian armies, though this was not realized at the time, ceased to be a possible decisive factor.

and difficult of attack by Italy. To get at Austria the Italians had to fight uphill through a very rough mountain region whose natural defenses had been carefully improved by military art. The slow progress of the Italian armies for more than a year was mainly due to the difficulties of the country over which they had to fight their way.

On May 7, 1915, occurred an event which filled the world with horror, outside of Germany, where it was the subject of public rejoicing. This was the sinking by a Hun submarine of the great Cunard liner Lusitania, without the slightest warning or giving the least opportunity for her people to

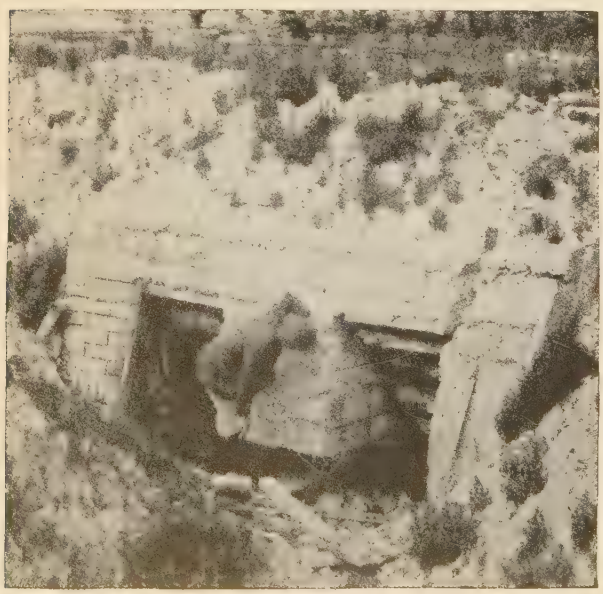


The Latest Type of U. S. Submarine, the L-1.

escape. The result was the murder of 1,134 noncombatants, about half of them women and children, and more than 100 of them Americans. In moral effect this "success" was a greater loss to Germany than the battle of the Marne, for from it the world began to understand that there could be no safety for any nation until the German empire was destroyed.

THE DISASTER OF SERBIA.

Little Serbia had beaten off the Austrian attack the year before, and for nine months had kept her soil clear of the invader. But now came her turn to join Belgium in martyrdom.



A Captured German Stronghold.

Having really disposed of Russia, as the event proved, even more by corruption of its administration, including some of the chief ministers of the czar, than by victories in the field, the Huns were now able to bring Bulgaria to their side and thus turn irresistible forces upon hapless Serbia. An Austro-German army swept over the Danube; the Bulgars attacked from the east; the pro-German king of Greece, whose wife was the kaiser's sister, repudiated his solemn engagement to aid Serbia if attacked by Bulgaria.

The allies attempted to come to Serbia's aid by landing troops at Saloniki, but again they were "too late." The Serbian army was simply overwhelmed, and its retreat with most of the civilian population through the mountains of Albania to the Adriatic was one of the most tragic events in history. The Serbian spirit, however, remained unbroken, and Serbian soldiers did their parts in winning the triumphs of 1918.

Thus in the main theaters of the war the year was a bad one for the Allies. In its outer fields they made substantial progress. Early in the war Australian, New Zealand and Japanese forces had seized the German

colonies in the Pacific, and the Japanese had taken Kaio-Chao, the Hun stronghold on the Chinese coast.

Berlin had counted confidently on a Boer revolt in South Africa, but the Boers themselves quickly suppressed some attempts and on May 12, 1915, the forces of the Union of South Africa captured the German military colony of Southwest Africa. Meanwhile, British and French colonial forces had been cleaning up Togoland, and by the end of the year East Africa was the only colony still held by German forces.

Turkish attempts to reach the Suez canal had also been repulsed and the British had made alliances with the Arab tribes seated about the Mohammedan holy cities of Mecca and Medinah, which were to have important effects upon the position of the Turkish sultan in the eyes of Moslems throughout the world.

This year was also marked by the appearance of a new weapon, poison gas, first used by the Huns in the second battle of Ypres in April against French colonial troops. The break in the line was closed by the valor of the Canadians, who suffered horribly, but still held fast.

"THEY SHALL NOT PASS"

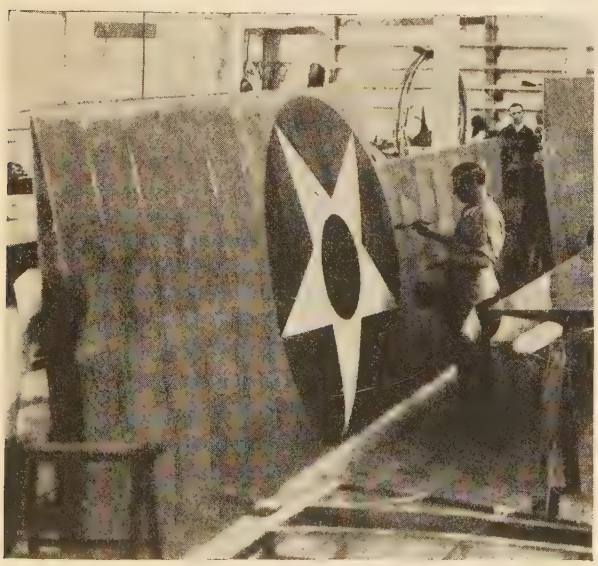
The western front battles of 1916 opened on Feb. 21 with the great German drive against the Verdun position. For weeks the issue was doubtful, with the French tenaciously holding, but slowly pushed back by the constant hammering of the Huns. The spirit of France was voiced in the motto, "On ne passe pas"—"They shall not pass." And they did not pass, though before the Hun wave reached its crest in July it had penetrated the inner fortifications of Verdun.

Then at the critical moment, on July 1,

Defenders of Our Shores. Coast defense gun crew at Fort Andrews, Boston, loading a projectile into a twelve-inch mortar.

The "America," a great seaplane built for transatlantic flight.

the British and French struck back on the Somme, driving a wedge twenty miles wide and ten miles deep into the German lines, and inflicting losses estimated at 700,000 men, including 95,000 prisoners, over 300 cannon and nearly 1,500 machine guns. In this allied drive the "tank" first made its appearance, a huge armored tractor devised by the British and built in America whose "caterpillar" wheels enabled it to waddle over seemingly impassable obstructions.



First view of plant where Uncle Sam built his airplanes for which Congress has appropriated $640,000,000. The view shows the work of building the airplanes, which went on behind guarded walls.

This battle, it was hoped, would be the beginning of the "big push" that would end in the expulsion of the Huns from France, but it was halted in November by the rainy season when its threat seemed most dangerous to the enemy. It is also reported that certain French politicians, tainted with the "defeatist" propaganda for which Bolo Pasha later paid with his life, intrigued against Gen. Nivelle, commander of the region of the famous "Ladies' road," and procured his supersession at the critical moment.

On the Asiatic front the Russian armies under Grand Duke Nicholas made substantial progress into Armenia, where the year before the Turks, with German sanction, had massacred probably 250,000 of that hapless race. The Russian fleets dominated the Black sea, despite the addition to the Turkish navy of German vessels and men, but the capture of Trebizond on April 15 marked the limit of the Russian advance.

This was offset by the loss two weeks later of 10,000 Anglo-Indian troops at Kut-

el-Amara in Mesopotamia. These forces for about a year had been slowly working up the Tigris and had almost reached Bagdad when they were caught by floods, surrounded and starved into surrender.

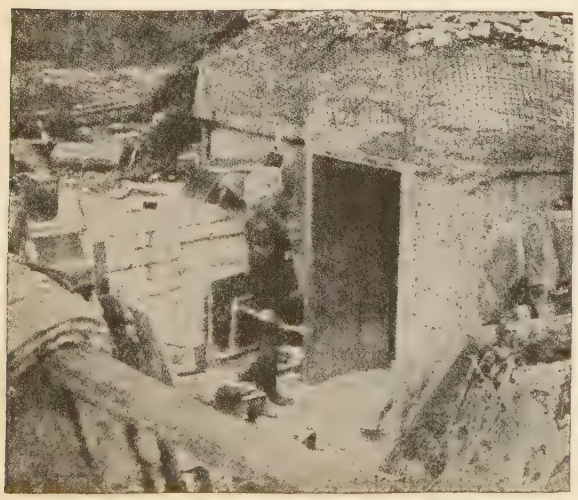
THE BETRAYAL OF ROUMANIA

By August of this year it also began to look as if the Italians would finally be able to carry the war into Austria. They had taken Gorizia after overcoming the most enormous difficulties of terrain. Then on Aug. 27 Roumania declared for the allies, and added her army to the forces which the Huns had to meet on the eastern front.

Of course Roumania could not have ventured to come in without definite assurances of support and supply of munitions from the allies. These promises were kept on the part of England and France. The arms and munitions were duly delivered at Archangel and on the Murman coast. But they never reached Roumania. Neither did the promised Russian army that was to come through Bessarabia ever arrive to join the Roumanians and the Russian advance into Galicia did not get far enough seriously to impede the secondary Austro-German attack from Transylvania.

Moreover the Roumanians, instead of sending their principal army against Bulgaria on the south, made their main effort toward Hungary. As a result the Bulgarians, led by Gen. Mackensen, probably the most efficient of the German commanders, speedily forced the passage of the Danube, and by Dec. 6 Bukharest had fallen, the Roumanian government had fled to Jassy, and half of Roumania, including the precious petroleum fields, was in possession of the Huns.

Americans on the Aisne receiving masks for protection against German poison gas.

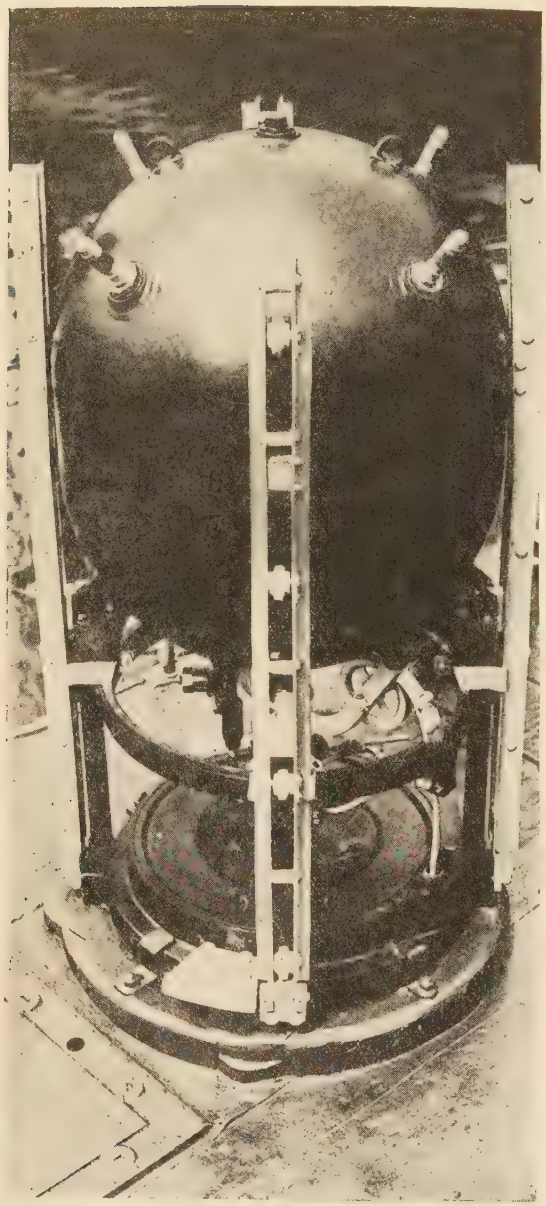


A Captured German Dugout. On a battlefield near Lens. The entrance to a thick concrete walled and bomb-proof roofed German trench dugout.

As it afterward appeared German corruption of high Russian officials, extending even to Stuermer, then prime minister, had brought about the betrayal of Roumania, both by failure to deliver indispensable munitions and withholding the promised aid of troops and by advance communication of Roumania's plan of campaign to the German general staff. That is, the undoubted abilities of Mackensen were aided at Petrograd by the grossest treachery, procured by Berlin's bribes. While Roumania nominally held out for more than a year, her army was not after the end of 1916 an important factor in the conflict.

AMERICA ENTERS THE WAR

Many Americans had been slow to believe the tales of Hun atrocity in Belgium and France. But evidence accumulated and



U. S. Mine for Harbor protection.

the wholesale murder of the Lusitania roused such indignation that millions would have welcomed an immediate declaration of war. The government at Washington however deemed it wise to wait until the cup of Hun iniquity should be not only full but running over.

After full two years of effort on the part of President Wilson to recall Germany to observance of the laws of civilized warfare, and after Berlin's repeated promises had proved to be brazen lies the break finally came when on Jan. 31 the kaiser's government added open insult to repeated injuries.

On that day Berlin decreed to itself the ownership of about half of the Atlantic ocean for its submarines and assumed to bar out of this "war zone" not only all enemy, but all neutral vessels, under penalty of destruction. The United States was forbidden to send to any British port more than one ship weekly, which vessel must also be distinguished by a sort of barber-pole decoration.

On Feb. 3 the German ambassador was handed his passports. On April 2 President Wilson asked congress to make a formal declaration of war, which was passed and signed on April 6—Good Friday, and in the judgment of the whole nation a good day for a good deed.

The first American naval contingent sailed immediately. American troops began to land in France on June 26 and saw their first fighting on Oct. 27, but the remainder of the year on this side of the Atlantic was largely consumed in raising and training the army, which finally grew to 2,000,000 men in France and as many more preparing to follow them when the successive surrenders of Bulgaria, Turkey, Austria, and Germany led to the armistice and ended hostilities.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONS

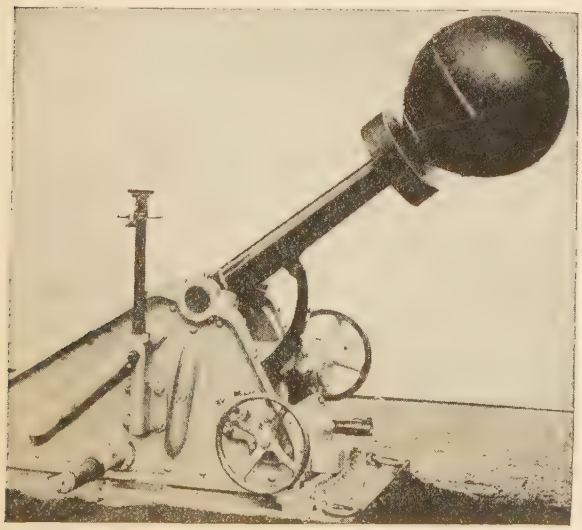
The year 1917 had opened not unpros-

Allied Troops Resting After a Battle.

perously for the free nations. The French and English had improved their positions on the western front. A new British army that had been pushing up the Tigris took Bagdad on March 11. At the same time the Huns in Flanders retreated about twenty miles to what became known as "the Hindenburg line." Toward the end of May the Italians had crossed the Isonzo and were on the Bainsizza plateau, within twelve miles of Trieste. The United States, though not yet ready with a great army, was freely making enormous and sorely needed loans to France, England, Italy, Belgium and Russia.

But on March 12 a revolution, led by members of the duma and backed by the Petrograd garrison, had dethroned the czar, declared monarchy abolished and set up a Russian republic. It was hailed with joy by all friends of democracy, but the hopes built upon it were doomed to disappointment. The provisional government went through one crisis after another, until finally with the fall of Kerensky on Nov. 8 the control of Russia fell into the hands of the "bolsheviki," a group of radical socialists and doctrinaire pacifists, who demoralized the army and made peace with the Huns, ceding to them and the Turks Poland, the Baltic provinces, the Ukraine and Trans-Caucasia.

Even the original Russian revolution is suspected to have been more or less "made



An improved type of bomb-gun with which the British Army is well equipped.

Private Shelly being decorated by the King of England with the Medal of Honor for gallantry in advance from Hamel on July 4th.

in Germany," though the honesty of Kerensky and others of its original leaders is not questioned. It has been proved, however, that Lenine and Trotzky, the chiefs of the bolsheviki, were from the beginning in German pay and it was said of the Bolsheviki that "those who are not crazy are crooked and those who are not crooked are crazy," and the epigram appears to be an accurate description.

Even before the fall of Kerensky the Germans had been enabled by the growing demonstrations of the Russian armies to take Riga and engineer the secession of the Ukraine from northern Russia, with eventual results of getting temporary possession of territories larger than the whole German empire before the war.

THE ITALIAN DISASTER

Delivered by the collapse of Russia from the need of maintaining more than a border guard on the eastern front, with plundering expeditions into the Baltic provinces and the Ukraine, the Huns concentrated for a great drive upon Italy. On Oct. 26 the Italian line was broken at Caporetto and within three weeks the Italian army had lost all its hard won gains of nearly thirty months, and more.

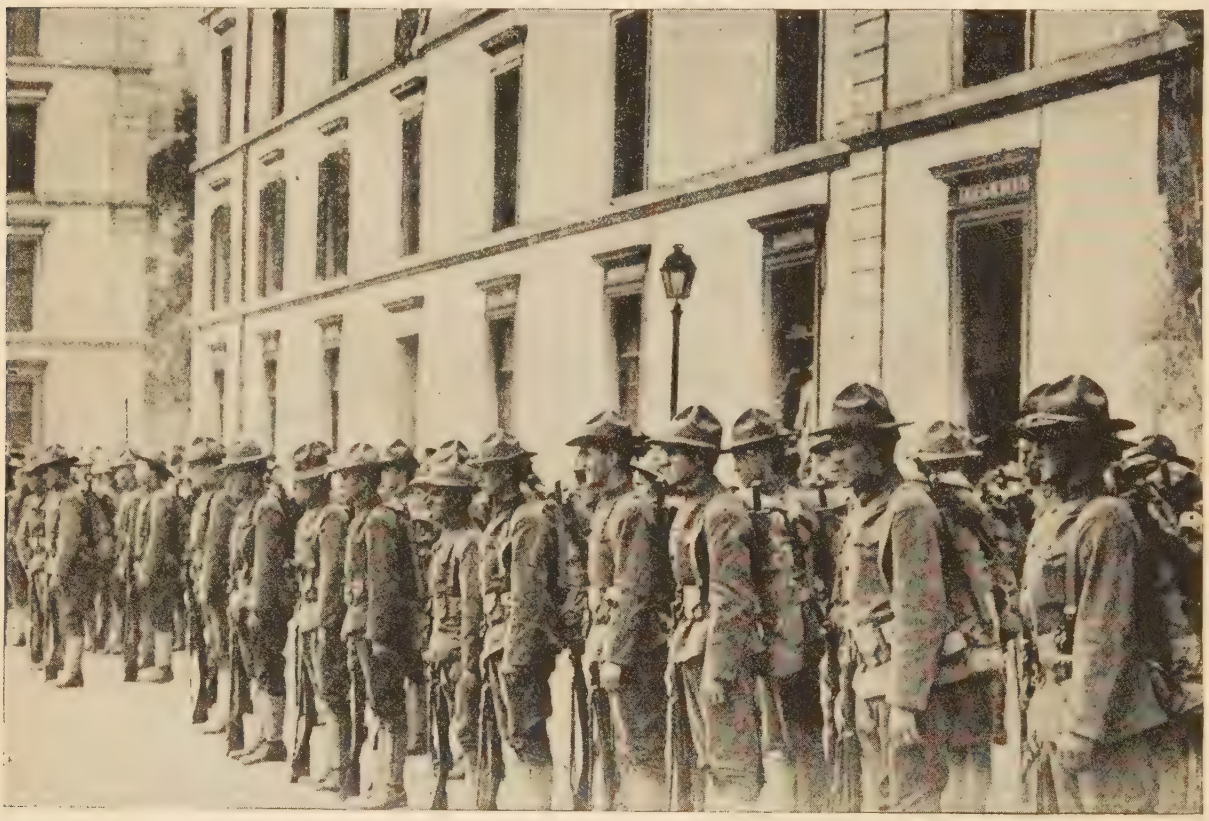
Its retreat was marked by enormous losses of men and material and ended only at the Piave river, where a successful stand was made with the aid of French and Brit-

ish troops. There is little doubt that "German propaganda" along the lines of the bolshevist idea that the war could be ended by the soldiers simply refusing to fight any more had undermined the morale of certain Italian contingents and contributed to this German success.

In other quarters, however, the allies fared better. On June 12 the treacherous King Constantine of Greece was forced to abdicate and Venizelos returned to power. Then began a reorganization and purification of the Greek army, which the next year sent 400,000 Greeks to aid in putting Bulgaria and Turkey out of the war and in the reconquest of Serbia.

There were other steps taken by the allies of importance in a political as well as a military sense. Early in the war the Turkish government had attempted to arouse all Mohammedans against the allies with a proclamation of a "holy war." The effort had failed, but the British government was not content to rest on the evident loyalty of its Moslem subjects. It struck back not only with the expedition into Mesopotamia, but also by measures which detached the Arab tribes about Mecca and Medinah from obedience to Constantinople.

Then in the latter part of 1917 an expedition commanded by Gen. Allenby pushed across the desert from Egypt into Palestine, defeated the Turks near Joppa, and on Dec. 20 captured Jerusalem and later pushed eastward across the Jordan and seized the railroad to Medinah.



Arrival of the First American Troops in Paris.

Christendom was pleased with the Christmas gift of Jerusalem, and Zionist Jews saw their hopes bearing promise of fruition. But the new alignment which the barring of all roads to the Moslem shrines

against the Turks of Constantinople gave to the Moslem world was even more important.

The Turkish sultan's only claim to the title of "Khalif" or successor of Mahomet was that he had kept open the pilgrim roads to Mecca and Medinah. For the practical purposes of assuring to Moslems power of compliance with the religious duty of pilgrimage, the "khalif" is now King George V.

THE REVIVAL OF A NATION

On Feb. 12, 1918, the Russian bolsheviki had accepted the Hun peace terms at Brest Litovsk and Russia was nominally as well as actually out of the war. On March 9, Roumania had been forced to submit in form. Russia was breaking into fragments and plunging into ever increasing anarchy. The pro-German elements in the Ukraine got the upper hand there and made that great granary virtually a German province. Mutinies broke up the Russian Black sea fleet, German forces seized the Black sea ports, and the Turks pushed over into the great Russian oil fields between the Black sea and the Caspian.

Then came one of the most extraordinary events of the war, checking the Germanization of Russia, and leading directly to the rebirth of a nation long subjugated and oppressed, with its formal recognition by all the allied powers as an independent state. That nation was Bohemia, with the border provinces of Moravia and Silesia, which their own people prefer to call Slovakia.

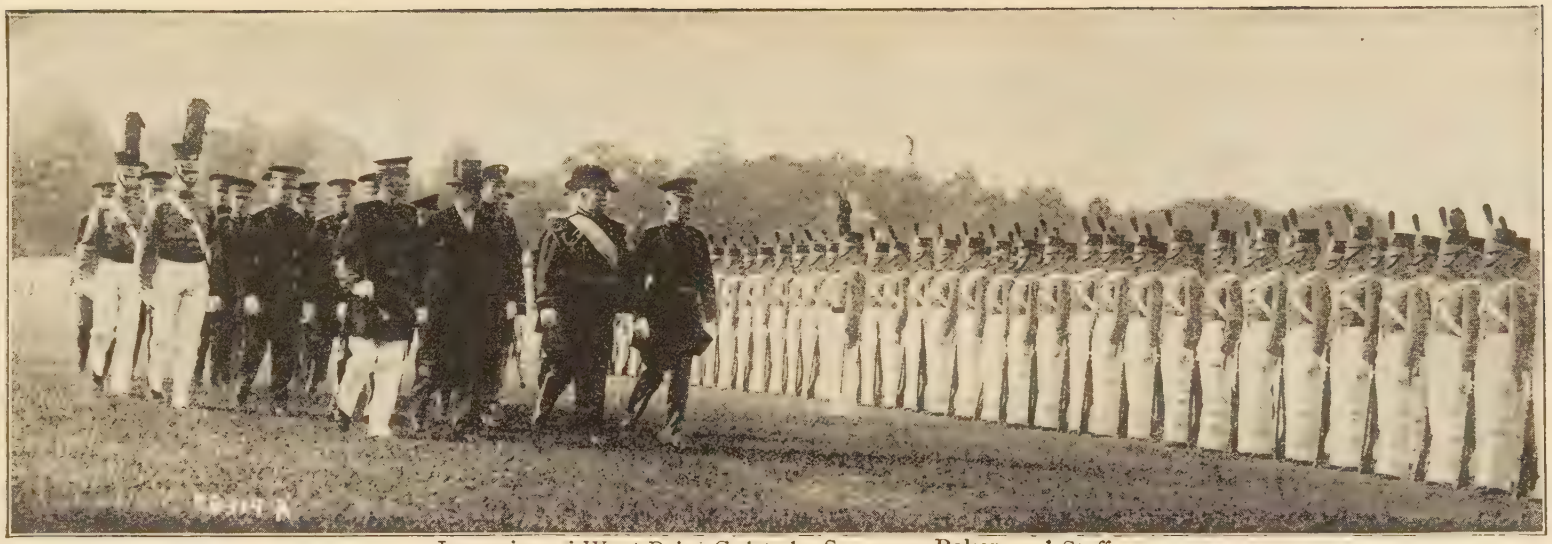
Yanks Bringing in German Prisoners.

A Protected Battery. The most cleverly concealed battery on the Serbian front.

Among the consequences of the war is the winning of the Czech-Slovaks of their fight of nearly 500 years to preserve their distinct nationality.

Bohemia, had, of course, been forced to furnish her due proportion of troops to the Austrian armies. At every opportunity they went over to the Russians, with whom they fought valiantly. When Russia collapsed these Czech-Slovak regiments turned eastward, seeking to make their way through Siberia to the sea, hoping in time to reach France and fight the Huns there.

Fortunately for the cause of Bohemia and of orderly liberty everywhere the madness of the Russian bolsheviki refused to permit the Czech-Slovaks to depart in peace. Their arms were demanded and the trains on which they were making their way to Vladivostok were attacked. There were between 75,000 and 100,000 armed men, strung out all the way from the Volga



Inspection of West Point Cadets by Secretary Baker and Staff.

Where the U. S. Gets the Officers for Its Army. Generals in the Making.
The cadet battalion at West Point marching across the parade ground.

region to eastern Siberia.

The Czech-Slovaks defended themselves and did more. Their national council, organized at Paris under the leadership of Prof. Thomas G. Masaryk, an exiled educator, who proved a statesman of the first rank, realized that these troops could form a most valuable rallying point for such elements in Russia as were neither infected with bolshevik insanity nor in German pay.

The Czech-Slovak national council was formally recognized, first by England and France and later by the other allies, as a de facto government, and the Czech-Slovak troops in Russia were accorded the rights of belligerents. This meant that the Huns of great Hun drives opened from the Scarpe to the Oise in Flanders.

On a sixty-mile front more than 1,000,000 men were hurled toward Amiens. The German plan was to divide the British from the French, roll up the British, drive them back to the coast and destroy them. Berlin hoped thus to obtain, if not a complete victory, at least a "negotiated peace" that would restore the German colonies and permit the Huns to retain their Russian plunder.

Those were extremely perilous days, for the Americans had not yet come up in full strength, and if the British armies were

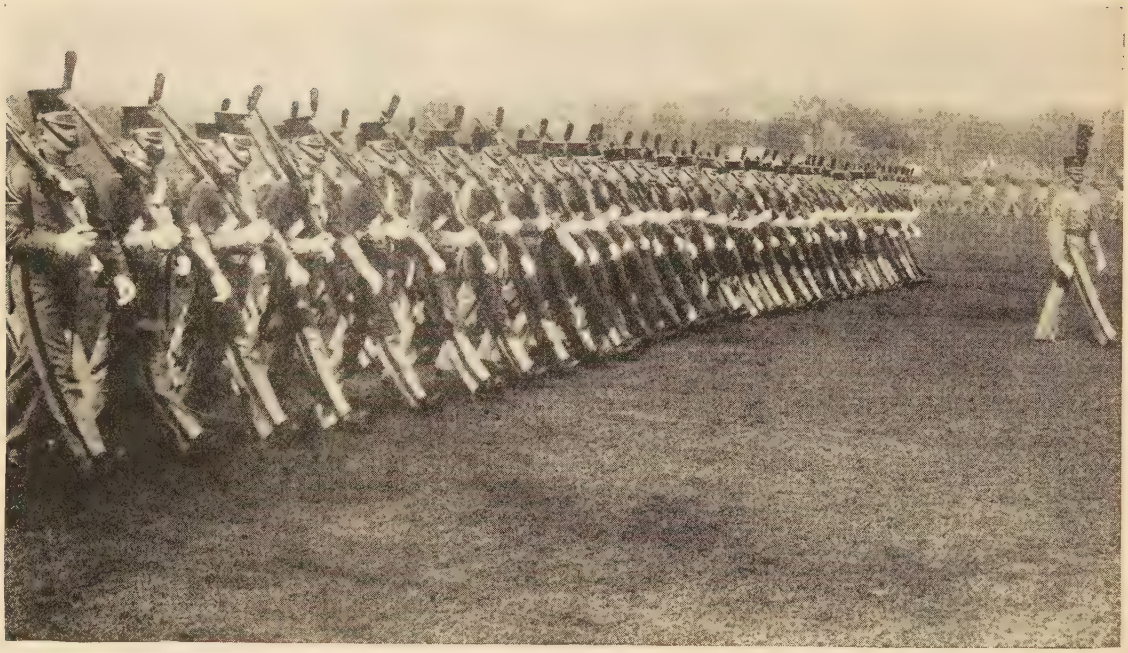
A Night Scene in "No Man's Land." A pyrotechnic display over "No Man's Land." A night scene on the French front, caused by a barrage of incendiary bombs.

could no longer treat Czech-Slovak prisoners as "deserters." without incurring stern reprisals. Thanks largely to the Czech-Slovaks, aided by Japanese and American troops, bolshevism had been practically suppressed in Siberia when the war on the western front ended, and European Russia about half-way up the Volga was in the hands of friends of the allies.

FOUR ANXIOUS MONTHS

With the utter collapse of Russia the Huns were enabled to turn their full strength upon the French and British armies on the western front. On March 21 what was to be the first of the last series destroyed the French could hardly stand alone. But though the British line bent back and back. it did not break, and as it shortened the French extended. This battle led to the appointment on April 2 of Marshal Foch as supreme commander of all the allied forces. The allies thereafter had absolutely unified direction of all their armies.

Halted in the direct drive for Amiens, the Huns struck at Arras and between Messines and La Bassee with intent to gain the Flanders ridge. The whole weight of this drive fell on the British, who were literally fighting with "their backs to the wall," with no natural line



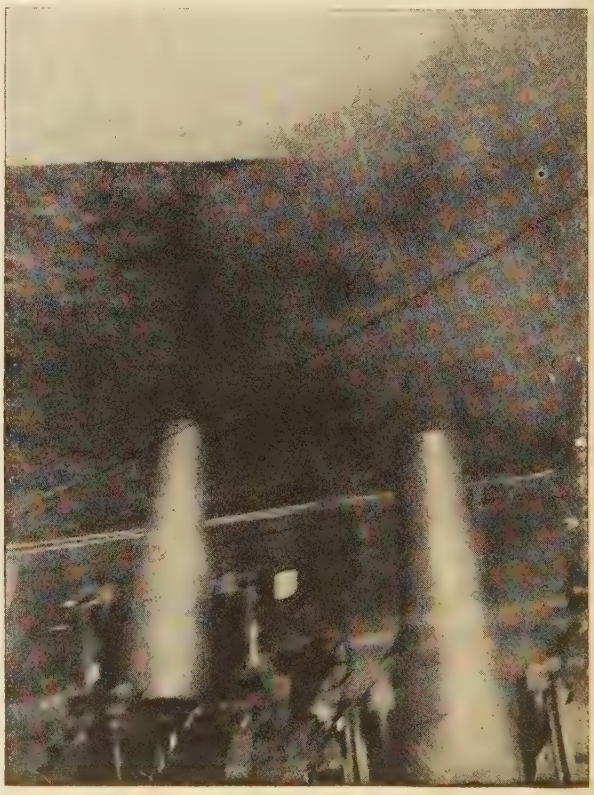
West Point Cadets

of defense between them and the channel. But the British line held.

Balked in their direct attempts to divide the British and French and reach the channel ports, the Huns launched a new drive between Soissons and Rheims, with Paris as the goal. In six days the Huns had hammered across the Aisne and had again reached the Marne in the region of Chateau Thierry. But an attempt to push farther down the Ourcq was defeated by the French and Americans, and at Cantigny and Belleau wood the United States Marines added new names to a victory roll that goes back to the very beginning of the nation in 1775.

THE HIGH TIDE OF THE HUN

The first half of 1918 was, in fact, a race between America and the Huns. It seemed a question for weeks whether the Yanks could get across the ocean fast enough. They were coming at the rate of nearly 300,000 a month, but could they get into the battle line soon enough? By July 1 the question was really answered, for more than 1,000,000 American soldiers were in France, and they were still pouring in,



Heavy United States Coast Artillery.

unchecked by Hun submarine raids on the American coast.

On July 15 the Germans opened what proved to be their last great drive. Balked in their effort to open roads to Paris along the Oise and Ourcq valleys they tried again from Chateau Thierry to Rheims and on eastward across Champagne to the edge of the Argonne forest. The Champagne attack was held within the forest of Villers-Cotterets, southwest of Soissons, were hurled against the west flank of the Marne wedge. The enemy engaged on the eastward side of the wedge, was taken by surprise and fell back before the Franco-American forces.

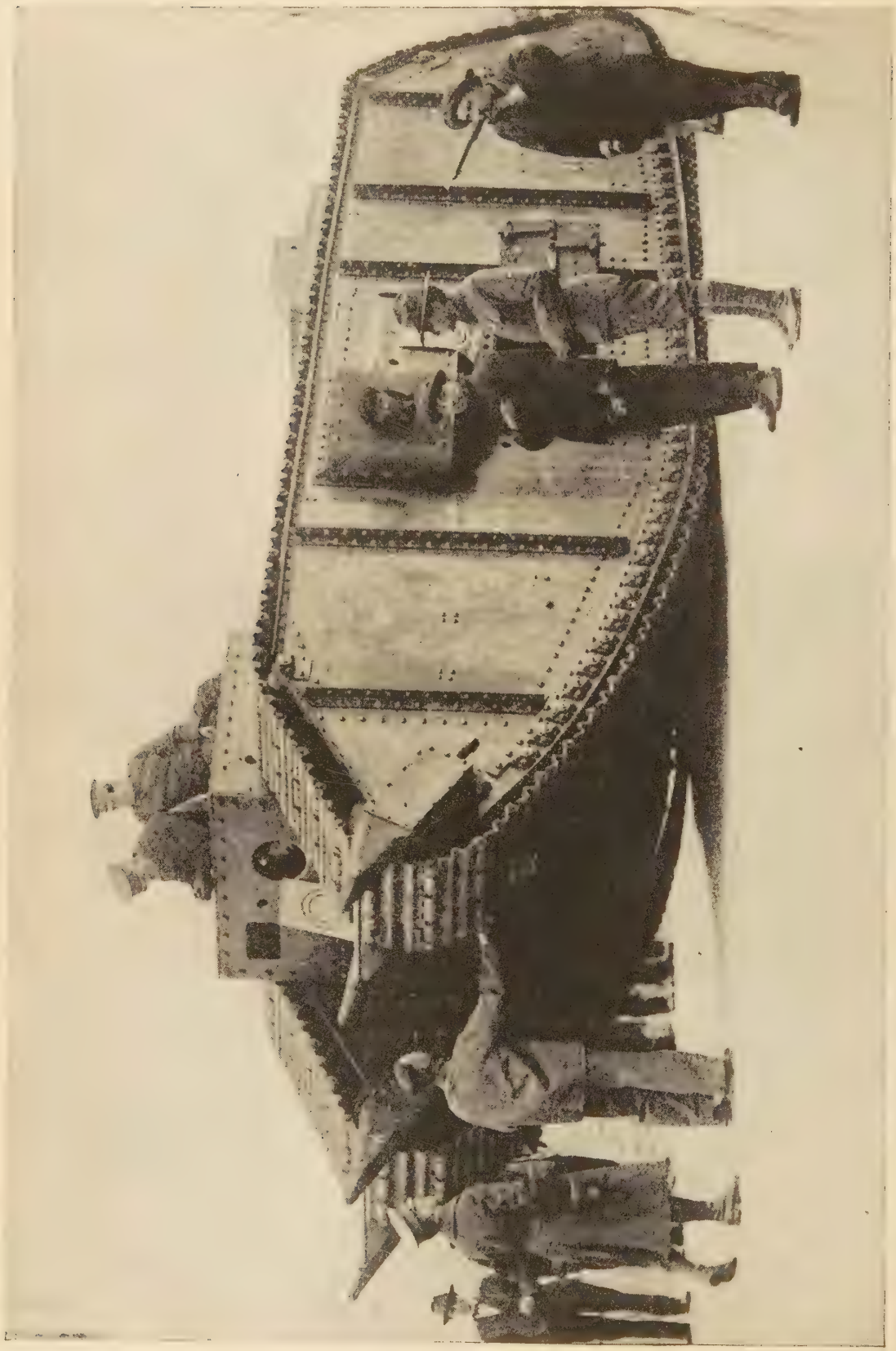
The drive toward Epernay was the high tide of the Hun and Chateau Thierry marked what proved to be its final break. Thereafter the allies kept on the defensive

Caterpillar "Tank" Demonstrated to Officers of Army Meets Disaster. A model "Tank" constructed to be demonstrated to officers of the United States Army turned a double somersault while climbing a bank after crossing the Los Angeles River, when the soft earth gave way under the 13-ton machine. The demonstration, however, was successful, as it showed how easily a machine used in time of war can cross a river and climb its banks. The "Tank" is modeled after those in actual service in Europe.

French battle zone. West of Rheims the Huns got across the Marne and turned their drive up its valley toward Epernay.

Then at Chateau Thierry on July 18 the American marines went in. Out of 8,000 their casualties were 6,000, but they halted the Hun advance on Epernay. Marshal Foch had, in fact, anticipated the enemy plan. Strong reserves gathered in the and never again lost that advantage.

Gradually Foch extended pressure all around the Marne pocket. The Hun resistance was stubborn. By desperate effort he held the corners of the pocket and its mouth open through a retreat across the Vesle. A few days later Foch struck again at the nose of the Somme salient. British and French troops advanced from



"America," the First Large American Built Tank. Completed. Front view of the "America," the first large American built tank, which is much larger in every way than the Tank Britannia, which was on exhibition in many cities of the United States. The "America" made its first public appearance on the streets of Boston in a Red Cross parade. The massiveness of the tank can be seen from this photograph, the first taken.

Montdidier to Albert. The Hun was again taken by surprise, and by the middle of August had been driven back to the lines held before the Somme advance of the allies in 1916.

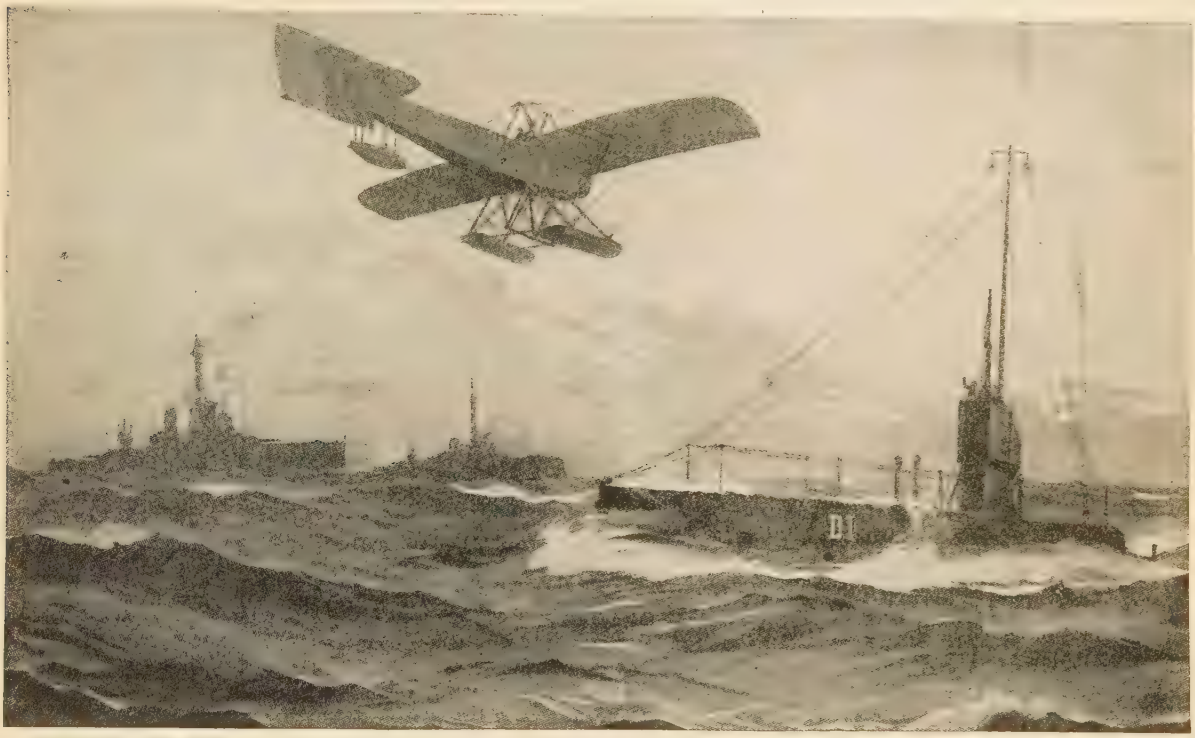
THE YANKS IN LORRAINE

By this time nearly 2,000,000 Americans were in France. Heretofore they had been brigaded with the French and British. Now they were to show what they could do wholly by themselves. Pershing had 1,000,000 men under his personal command along the line from Verdun southeastward across Lorraine.

The great American drive opened on Sept. 12, and rapidly smashed in the St. Mihiel salient which the Germans had held for four years. Within little more than a week the Americans were within cannon shot of the outer forts of Metz. They did not directly attack that enormous fortress. There was a longer but less costly way to break the back of the Hun armies.

Followed the tedious task of fighting through the Argonne forest. During October it was completed and the Americans had closed the Stenay gap and were driving on to Sedan. That historic town, the scene of the great French disaster in 1870, they reached in the early days of November. Its capture cut one of the two great German lines of supply and of retreat.

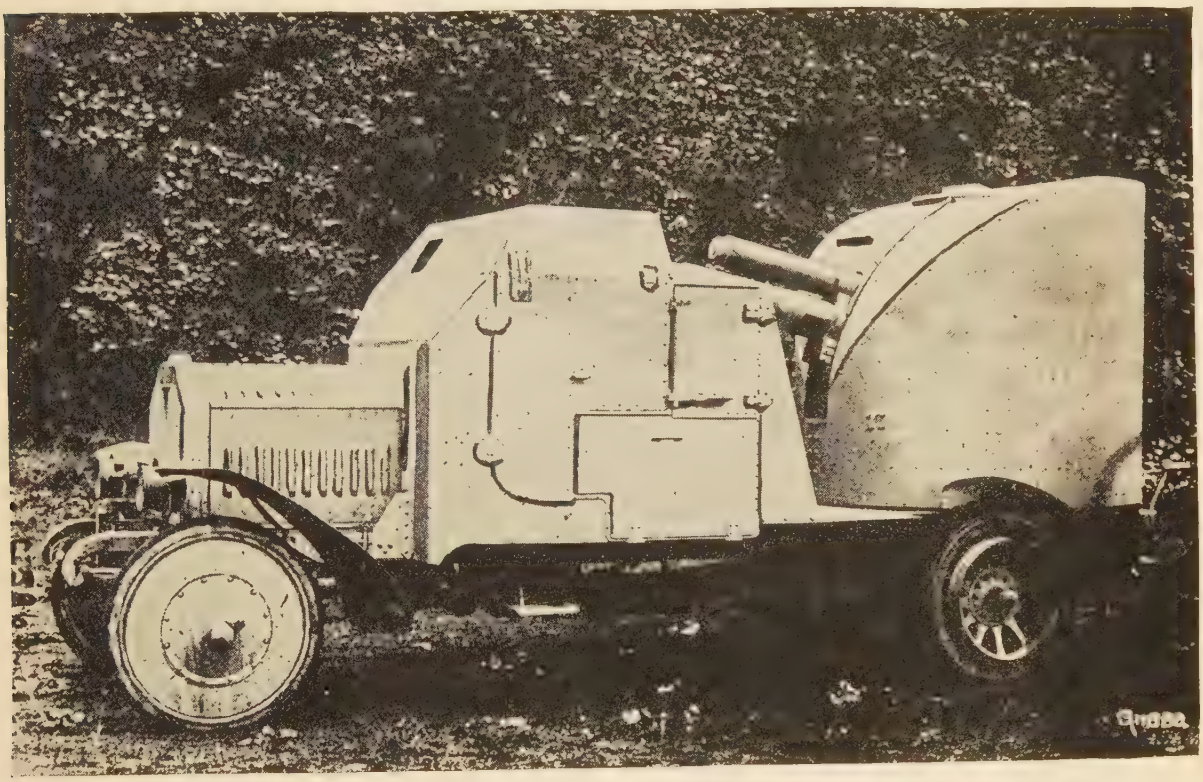
Meanwhile the French and British, with various American contingents, had been driving the Hun in a retreat of ever-increasing speed and disorder across French Flanders and Belgium. Ostend and Zeebrugge, lair of the U-boats, were abandoned. Full 15,000 Huns were caught against the Dutch frontier and forced into internment in Holland. When the Hun envoys came with white flags to Guise on Nov. 8 to receive Foch's terms of truce the allied line was from east of Ghent and Audenarde to Maubeuge and the Hun "farthest west" in France was at Chaumont-Porcien.



British Hydroplane and Submarine After Sinking a German Submarine by a Depth Bomb.

Herbert C. Hoover, Food Dictator, Was Selected by President Wilson as the Most Able Man for the Position.

Before the armistice was formally accepted this salient had been smashed in and allied troops were in Rocroi, scene of a famous French victory over 200 years ago. The French had reached the Belgian frontier east of Avesnes, and the Canadians on the morning of Nov. 11 took Mons, a place of a heroic effort of the British to halt the Hun in the summer of 1914. Pershing's men on Nov. 10 had attacked on a front of seventy-one miles from the Meuse southeastward and were within ten miles of the north side of Metz. Had the Hun not submitted it was evidently the plan to pocket Metz and push down the Moselle valley for a direct invasion of Germany.



A Motor Drawn Cannon with Armor Used to Fight Zeppelins and Aeroplanes.

THE SMASH OF EMPIRES

Preceding the final collapse of the Hun on the western front had come the collapse of his vassals. Bulgaria was the first to go, under the hammering of the allies on the Macedonian front, aided by the reconstructed armies of Greece and Serbia. Czar Ferdinand the Tricky abdicated in favor of his son Boris, who at last account was unlikely long to keep his throne.

After some weeks and much squirming, Turkey sent Gen. Townshend, the British commander captured at Kut-el-Amara, to beg for a truce from the British admiral commanding the allied fleets in the Aegean, and obtained conditions that foreshadowed what the Huns themselves were to expect. Meanwhile the British had advanced far up the Euphrates and were approaching Aleppo, while Allenby's army had pushed north beyond Damascus.

A few days after the Turkish surrender, Austria-Hungary, which had for weeks been trying to obtain a parley for peace, only to receive an "unconditional surrender" answer, sent a white flag into the Italian lines. Early in October the Italians had resumed the offensive and had

Landing of United States Forces on French Shore.

been steadily driving the Austrians back, and the various nationalities which made up the former Hapsburg empire had been busily engaged in seceding from one another.

The terms imposed on Austria-Hungary involved a surrender, not only complete but abject. There was, in fact, hardly a government left in Vienna to sign truce terms, and what Gen. Diaz really did was to accept the surrender of the million or

The abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm and his flight to Holland on the night of Nov. 10 completed the smash up of the Hun empires, and the apparent end of the last autocratic government in Europe.

NOT A "GENERALS' WAR"

The war produced commanders whom the military historian will rank among the most accomplished the world has known. But it was not a "generals' war" in the

U. S. Sailors in the Firth of Forth After Surrender of German Fleet.

so of Austro-Hungarian soldiers who were starving in front of his forces.

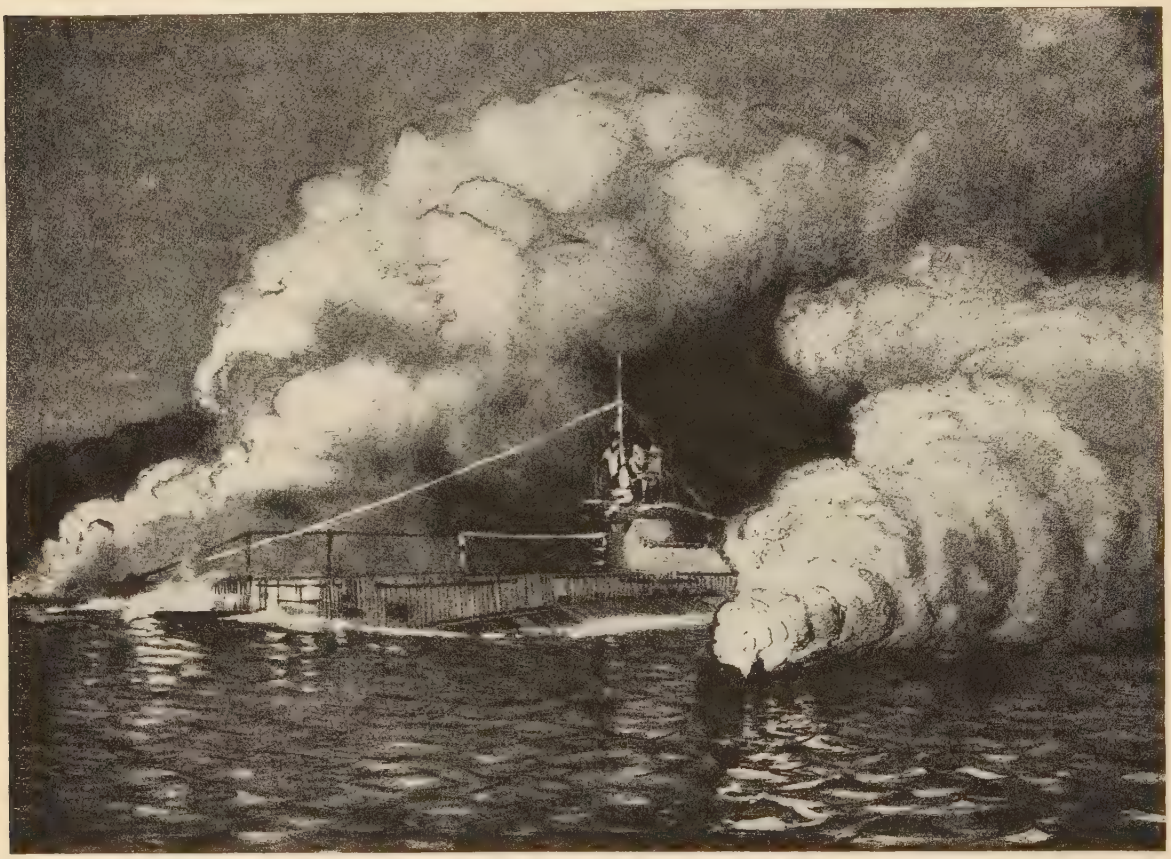
At last accounts the Bohemians were completely masters of their own country, the German-Austrians were begging for a hearing from the allies, the south Slavs had set up an independent government, Hungary was in the throes of civil war, and Kaiser Karl had fled from Vienna to Switzerland.

old sense of the word. Its numbers were too enormous and its fighting fronts extended for hundreds of miles. It afforded no opportunity for the general to perform feats like that of Napoleon at the bridge of Lodi or of Logan at Atlanta. Operations were directed, not by the general in personal contact with his whole force—that was physically impossible—but

by the general sitting at the collecting reservoir of information, with numerous advisers and assistants of all kinds.

In a very real sense the war was waged by boards of directors, known as "general staffs," with chairmen having power of final decision. "Great headquarters" was like the huge general office of a great industrial plant or a big governmental department. Elaborate plans had to be made far in advance for every important movement. The monotonous reiteration of the German official statements, that this or that movement was "executed according to plan," became a catchword of derision to civilians ignorant of the mechanics of modern war. Yet it accurately described the condition, though sometimes used to disguise reverses.

The "digging in" of the Huns, with intent to force a compromise peace if they could not win a sweeping victory, made it largely a "subalterns' war," using the term with the due expansion compelled by the engagement of such numbers that a colonel was of little more relative importance than a lieutenant in former wars. It was a war which could not be won by "maneuvers" or unexpected combinations. The Hun had to be "worn down." French mental clarity early and correctly described it as "a war of attrition."



Vessel Entering Box Smoke Screen.

FRANCE PROVIDES GREATER COMMANDERS

France provided the commander-in-chief who ended the war, as was natural. The Hun willed that the war must be lost or won on the soil of France, and France was the only one of the western allies which had, at the start, an army commensurate to the task both in numbers and training.

President Wilson and Members of the War Board.

Britain and the United States had still their great armies to make when they entered the war. Moreover, the training of British generals was in leading compact forces on distant expeditions rather than in management of enormous masses. British military technic was, perhaps, too individual and too little accustomed to widest range co-operation. It is significant that most complaints of failure in due co-ordination of action came from the British front in France.

In the German Second Line Before Cambrai, After Its Capture by the British.
A Tank Stopped in Negotiating a Deep Until After the Action.

Great Britain did her full share in provision of man power, and more than her share in provision of material, both by land and sea. In the sea war Britain was properly supreme. Yet though he rightly gave place to Foch in supreme command, Sir Douglas Haig's achievement may be measured by the fact that he led to victory greater armies than any Briton ever before commanded, and that of his chief subordinates by the fact that the forces for which they were responsible exceeded in numbers any army led by Wellington. Nor must the services of Kitchener, the great organizer, nor of Sir John French, unshaken battler against well-nigh hopeless odds, be forgotten.

Minor British commanders, Townshend, unfortunate in the field to whom destiny brought the fortune of being his captors' envoy to beg peace for them; Maude dying for England within a few days after he had won her a great victory; Allenby, captor of Jerusalem and hamstringer of the Turk, and Botha, the Boer, who fought bravely against England and loyally for England when her cause was freedom's, can be merely mentioned.

THE TURNERS OF THE TIDE

Of the American commanders, Pershing

This French Official photograph was the first to be received in this country of the actual drafting of the Armistice terms by the Allied plenipotentiaries at Versailles. While this conference was in progress the world waited with bated breath for the word that would seal the fate of German autocracy.

Here are shown American officers and American marines saluting the parade of the Allies in the streets of Vladivostock.

and his associates, it can be said that they proved fully equal to their task. No American since Grant has commanded so great an army as did Pershing. Their task was to turn the tide and make certain the victory. They were not called upon to endure as were their French and British colleagues, though we feel sure they would have endured with equal firmness had the need come. Nor will the world soon forget the word of Bundy at Chateau Thierry, "Retreat for Americans is intolerable," for it marked the turning of the Hun tide.

The impression left by the Italian leaders at this distance is that Cadorna was competent but slow and unfortunate, and that Diaz was competent, steadfast, prompt to press an advantage, and fortunate.

To Joffre and Foch, one for staying the Hun rush at the Marne, and the other for dealing the great counter stroke that ended the conflict, must be awarded the highest honors. Yet of Nivelle and Petain, of Mangin and Gouraud, of d'Esperey and Debeny, it must be said that they equaled any of Napoleon's marshals, and successfully led far greater forces and solved far more complex military problems. W. R. P.

British Tommies devised novel ways to carry their wounded. Photo shows British carrying their wounded on horses in Mesopotamia.

Naval Battles of The War

By

ADMIRAL SIMS

Admiral Mahan's contention, based on history, that sea power rather than land power is the decisive factor in wars where both can play their part, has received striking confirmation both in the progress and the events of the world war which the German rulers began and which has ended in their country's ruin.

The British navy has naturally played the larger part in the sea struggle. When the war began it was, nearly two to one, the most powerful on the seas. And it was ready as only the German war machine was ready on land. While its work was admirably supplemented by the fleets of France and Italy, and in the last two years by that of the United States, upon it fell the whole of one of the three great sea tasks of the war, and the heavier part of the other two.

These tasks were (1) clearing the oceans of the German cruisers; (2) the blockade of Germany, including the paralysis of the German high seas fleet; (3) guarding transport of troops and supplies, including the battle with the German submarines and mines.

HUNTING THE HUN FROM THE SEAS.

Within twenty-four hours after the declaration of war Admiral Sir John Jellicoe was at sea with the British grand fleet and the blockade lid was set upon the German outlets to the oceans. The story of that more than fifty months' ceaseless watch of the North sea must give first place, however, to the tale of the hunting of the Hun from all the outer waters of the world.

How deliberate was the German war planning is shown by the fact that several days before its declaration Admiral Spee's cruiser squadron steamed out of Kiao Chao to take up the work of commerce destroying. Detaching the Emden to raid the Indian ocean Spee sent the Leipzig and Neurenberg to join the Dresden on the South American coast, where he later met them with the Scharnhorst and Gneisenau after "shooting up" some defenseless French and British trading towns among the South Pacific islands.

On Nov. 1, 1914, Admiral Sir Charles Craddock, steaming north from Cape Horn, met the five German cruisers in a gale off Coronel on the Chilean coast with the armored cruisers Good Hope and Monmouth and the light cruiser Glasgow. The battleship Canopus, sent out to reenforce Craddock, was unable to get in sight of the action owing to slow speed. Craddock was overmatched, and the Good Hope and Monmouth went down with all hands, the battered Glasgow alone escaping south to warn the Canopus.

THE FIGHT OFF THE FALKLANDS.

The British admiralty calculated correctly that Spee would be compelled by want of coal and food to attempt a raid on the Falkland islands, in the South Atlantic, and sent thither Admiral Sir Frederick Sturdee with the Invincible, Inflexible, Carnarvon, Kent, Cornwall, Bristol and Macedonia.

The next morning after the British squadron arrived Spee steamed into sight. The action opened just before 1 p. m. on Dec. 8, 1914. At 4:16 the Scharnhorst sank, and soon after the Gneisenau, to be joined in the depths by the Nuernberg at 7:26 and by the Leipzig at 9:15. Unlike the Huns at Coronel, the British seamen

Victorious Yanks on a North River Ferry, on Their Return from France to New York.

did their best to rescue their beaten foes.

The Dresden escaped for the time and fled back into the Pacific, to be overhauled by the Kent and the Glasgow at Juan Fernandez the next March and to pull down her colors after an action of five minutes.

The Emden had met her fate a month before the fight off the Falklands, after destroying a number of merchant ships. On Nov. 10, 1914, the Australian cruiser Sydney, when about fifty miles east of the Cocos-Keeling islands in the Indian ocean, picked up a wireless message from the Cocos station: "Strange warship off entrance."

Two hours later the Emden was sighted coming out from the destruction of the wireless station. Two hours more and the Emden was a flaming wreck on the North Keeling reefs.

Within the first month of the war, on Aug. 30, 1914, the Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse had been sunk by the Highflyer off the Cape Verde islands. Two weeks later, on Sept. 14, the Carmania, an armed merchantman, had settled the Cap Trafalgar in the South Atlantic, and the Spreewald was captured by the Berwick in the North Atlantic.

HUN FLAG SWEPT FROM OCEANS.

The Prinz Eitel Friederich was hunted to refuge in an American port on April 8, 1915. The Geier had interned at Honolulu early in the war. The Karlsruhe simply disappeared, and its fate remains one of the mysteries of the seas. The Koenigsberg ran for shelter into an African river forest, and perished there on July 11, 1915.

Except for one or two raiders which slipped through the blockade disguised as

Remarkable Photograph of a "Flame-Throwing" or "Rain of Fire" Attack in the First Line French Trenches.

neutral merchantmen, that was the end of the German flag on the oceans.

The naval war's first and continuing problem was the German battle fleet—to beat it if it came out from its citadel down in the corner of the North sea behind Heligoland, or to keep it there impotent. That was Admiral Sir John Jellicoe's responsibility. How it has been met by the British navy under his command, and by his successor, Admiral Sir David Beatty, may be judged by the fact that only once has the German high seas fleet ventured out of harbor in force, as distinguished from light cruiser raids which achieved only baby-killing on bathing beaches.

The problem was enormous. England had fought no great naval war for a century. All the conditions had changed. The fleet actions of modern armorclads, off Santiago and in the Sea of Japan, had settled little, owing to the inferiority of the Spanish vessels and the incompetence of the Russian commanders. Much had been promised for the torpedo, but little performed. It had sunk no Russian vessel at Tsushima not already disabled by gunfire.

THE BLOCKADE AND THE PATROL.

The first summer of the war proved that the torpedo, plus the submarine, must be more seriously reckoned with. A British cruiser squadron made a challenging reconnaisance into the Heligoland bight. Within half an hour three large though old and somewhat slow cruisers, the Aboukir, Cressy and Hogue, were sent down, the Germans claimed by a single submarine. The lesson was promptly learned that submarine infested waters must be patrolled by small and swift vessels, and that there could be no humane slowing up for rescue.

No comparable success was again achieved by the Hun U-boats against war vessels. Some claimed were more probably by drifting mines, with which Germany, in brazen disregard of her Hague pledges, sowed the seas at every opportunity. The "victories of our U-boats" which German cities celebrated, were almost wholly over defenseless merchant ships, such as the Lusitania. They were, in fact, sheer murder of noncombatants.

The blockade had not only to bar the English channel and keep safe the ferry to France, but also to cover the sub Arctic waters north of the British islands and up to Iceland. How effective it was may be judged from the fact that after the first week of the war the only supplies that came into Germany from overseas were smuggled through Holland or Italy, Denmark or Sweden, the latter of which will quite possibly have to reckon with the allies in the final settlement for light regard of neutral duties. The German fleet could stand off the Russian in the Baltic and keep that traffic open, but that was all.

The French fleets in the Mediterranean, aided by the Italian after the first year, were equally efficient in their work. Austria had a considerable naval force of modern ships, but it never got out of the Adriatic except under the surface. Austrian and German submarines committed their share of atrocities in the Mediterranean, aided by the treachery of the Greek government until King Constantine was expelled from the throne, but the Hun battleships never but once dared a standup fight with their foes.

THE JUTLAND BATTLE.

This one great fleet action of the war was preceded by three swift cruiser raids toward the English coast. The first, on Nov. 3, 1914, did little damage to Yarmouth. The second, on Dec. 16, 1914, killed a large number of women and children at Scarborough, Hartlepool and Whitby. The third was intercepted on Jan. 24, 1915, on the Dogger bank by Sir David Beatty's cruiser squadron. In that encounter the British cruisers Lion and Tiger sank the German battleship Bluecher and sent the Derfflinger home badly crippled.

On the morning of May 31, 1916, Sir John Jellicoe was between Scotland and Denmark with the British grand fleet. Sir David Beatty's cruiser squadron had completed its sweep to the south and was swinging northward. At 2:30 p. m. Beatty was signaled by his light cruisers that the German fleet was out in force. It had apparently steamed north along the Danish coast and, when sighted, was heading home again, with light cruisers leading.

The choice was Beatty's either to encounter and try to detain the foe or to keep on his way to join Jellicoe. He followed Nelson's rule: "Engage the enemy in sight." The ensuing battle divides itself into three stages: (a) Beatty's advance until he found he had the whole German heavy fleet before him; (b) Beatty's swing round in an effort to draw the Germans toward Jellicoe, during which Admiral Evan Thomas came up with four battleships and took the first fire of Scheer's battleships; (c) the arrival of Jellicoe with Admiral Hood's battle cruiser squadron in the van.

The concentration of the British squadrons had been effected, and Jellicoe behind Hood was bearing down on Scheer in overwhelming force. But it was then 7 p. m. and night brought the North sea haze behind which and his own smoke screens Scheer turned and escaped with most of his vessels. The British fleet remained on the scene until the afternoon of June 1, picking up survivors. Not one German ship was in sight on a sea strewn with wreckage.

THEY NEVER CAME OUT AGAIN

The Huns being near home, while the British were 400 miles from port, got out the first story of the action, claiming "an enormous victory." Beatty lost, in fact, two battle cruisers, the Indefatigable and the Queen Mary, early in the action. Later the Invincible, Admiral Hood's flagship, went down with her commander, whose conduct was worthy of a family so renowned in naval annals. Some four or five German vessels of equal or greater value were sunk. Just how great the German losses were is yet to be ascertained.

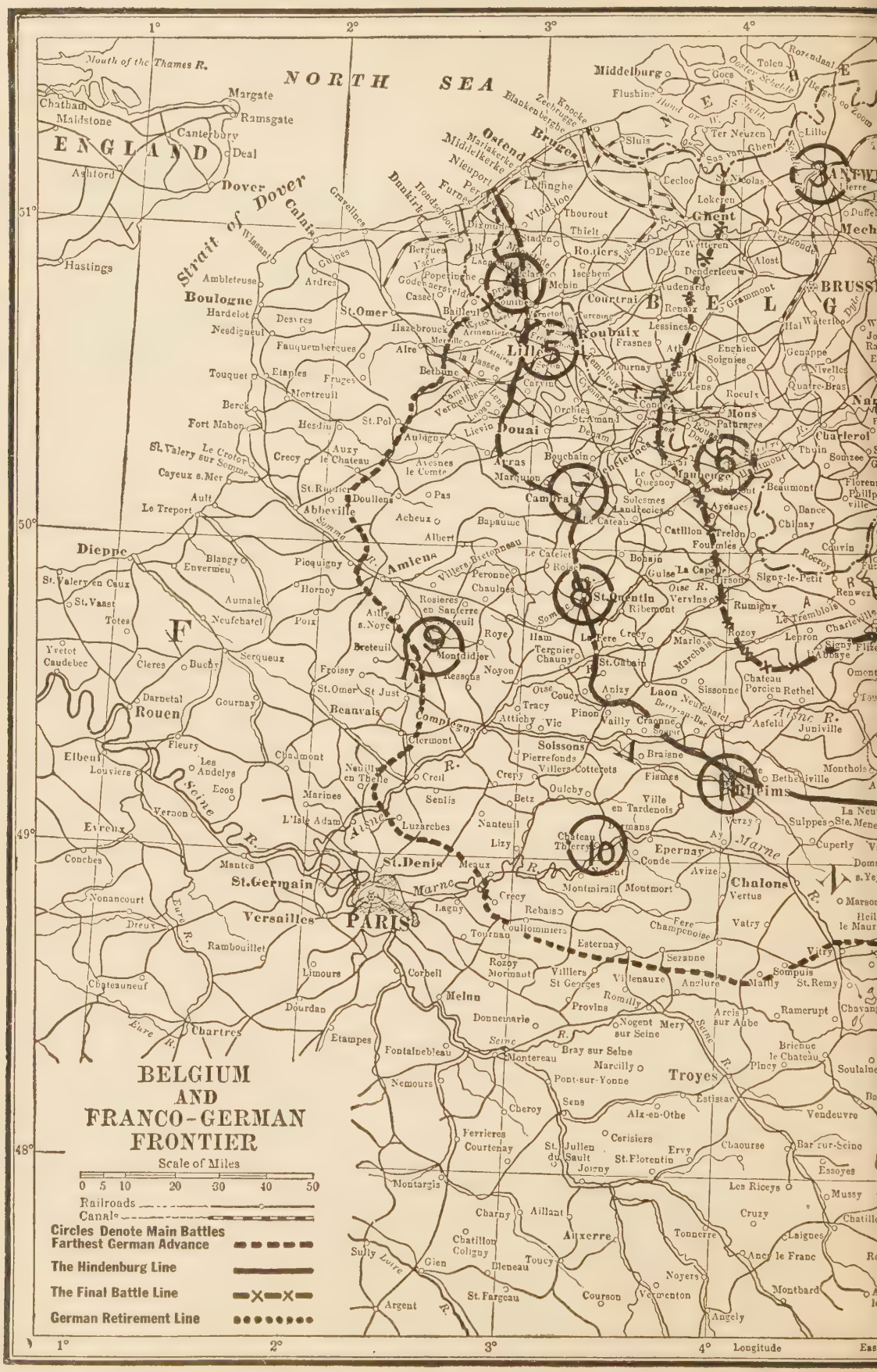
Boche helmets—mementos of Cambrai. Steel helmets were all taken from Boche prisoners captured during the memorable advance on Cambrai.

Victories, however, are tested by their results. With all the kaiser's claims to his people, he did not claim that the British blockade was ended. It continued, and more stringent than ever. And, strange to relate, immediately after the engagement it became "inconvenient" to permit even the most patriotic Germans to gaze upon their "victorious" fleet. For months afterward no civilian was permitted in the great naval port of Wilhelmshaven. And the German high seas fleet was never again seen outside the bight of Heligoland.

The third great naval task of the war was dealing with the submarine. Its invention is contested between the Englishman Day and the American Bushnell. Day was drowned by his in 1774 and Bushnell made unsuccessful attacks with his upon British vessels during our war of independence. Holland, an American, first made it practical. To the Hun was reserved the distinction of making it the synonym for wanton murder of the innocent. For a thousand years at least the German, in every land, when he dares to boast of "civilization," must expect as a blow in the face the word "Lusitania."

CURBING THE SUBMARINE

When the war began the submarine was unproved as a war weapon. After its first successes against the British cruisers already mentioned it had none of moment


NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
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Margate
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Chatham
Maidstone
Canterbury
Deal
Ashford
Dover
Strait of Dover
Calais
Gravelines
Hastings
Ambleteuse
Boulogne
Hardelot
Desvres
Nesdigneul
Fauquembergues
Aire
St. Omer
Hazebrouck
Bailleul
Cassel
Dunkirk
Furnes
Nieuport
Ostend
Middelkerke
Mariakerke
Blankenbergh
Zeebrugge
Knocke
Bruges
Middelburg
Flushing
Sluis
Ter Neuzen
Ghent
Terneuzen
Lokeren
Thielt
Roulers
Menin
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Roubaix
Lille
Tourcoing
Lessines
Ath
Tournay
Douai
Arras
Bethune
Lens
Mons
Charleroi
Binche
Maubeuge
Le Quesnoy
Valenciennes
Cambrai
Solesmes
Landrecies
Le Cateau
Catillon
Fourmies
Avesnes
Bavay
Montreuil
Etaples
Berck
Fort Mahon
Hesdin
St. Pol
Auxy le Chateau
Crecy
Abbeville
Ault
Le Treport
St. Valery sur Somme
Cayeux s. Mer
St. Riquier
Doullens
Pas
Albert
Bapaume
Acheux
Dieppe
Blangy
Envermeu
St. Valery en Caux
St. Vaast
Totes
Aumale
Neufchatel
Poix
Amiens
Picquigny
Villers-Bretonneux
Peronne
Chaulnes
Roisel
Le Catelet
Bohain
Guise
St. Quentin
Ribemont
Vervins
Hirson
Rumigny
Signy-le-Petit
Rethel
Le Tremblois
Rozoy
Lepron
Charleville
Mezieres
Renwez
Rocroy
Calvin
Chimay
Fumay
Yvetot
Caudebec
Cleres
Buchy
Serqueux
Darnetal
Rouen
Gournay
Elbeuf
Louviers
Les Andelys
Ecos
Vernon
Evreux
Conches
Fleury
Chaumont
Neuilly en Thelle
Beauvais
Froissy
St. Omer
St. Just
Breteuil
Montdidier
Roye
Ham
Tergnier
Chauny
Noyon
Ressons
Compiegne
Clermont
Creil
Crepy
Senlis
Marines
L'Isle Adam
Luzarches
Meaux
St. Denis
St. Germain
Nanteuil
Lizy
Chateau Thierry
Montmirail
Montmort
Epernay
Conde
Avize
Chalons
Vertus
Vitry
Sezanne
Esternay
Villiers St Georges
Villenauxe
Anglure
Sompuis
Mailly
St. Remy
Ramerupt
Arcis sur Aube
Brienne le Chateau
Pinay
Soulaines
Troyes
Estissac
Vendeuvre
Pont-sur-Yonne
Sens
Cheroy
Alx-en-Othe
Nemours
Montereau
Bray sur Seine
Marcilly
Nogent sur Seine
Mery
Donnemarie
Provins
Romilly
Melun
Corbeil
Rozoy
Mormant
Limours
Dourdan
Etampes
Fontainebleau
Chateauneuf
Chartres
Rambouillet
Versailles
PARIS
Nonancourt
Dreux
Laigny
Tournan
Coulommiers
Rebais
Crecy
Montmirail
Chateau Thierry
Fere Champenoise
Vatry
Chaource
Bar-sur-Seine
Essoyes
Les Riceys
Mussy
Cruzy
Tonnerre
Ancy le Franc
Montbard
Aillant
Auxerre
Charny
Chatillon Coligny
Sully
Gien
Toucy
Bleneau
Noyers
Courson
Vermenton
Argent
St. Fargeau
Montargis
Ferrieres
Courtenay
St. Julien du Sault
Joigny
Ervy
St. Florentin
Cerisiers
Angely
Longitude
BELGIUM AND FRANCO-GERMAN FRONTIER
Scale of Miles
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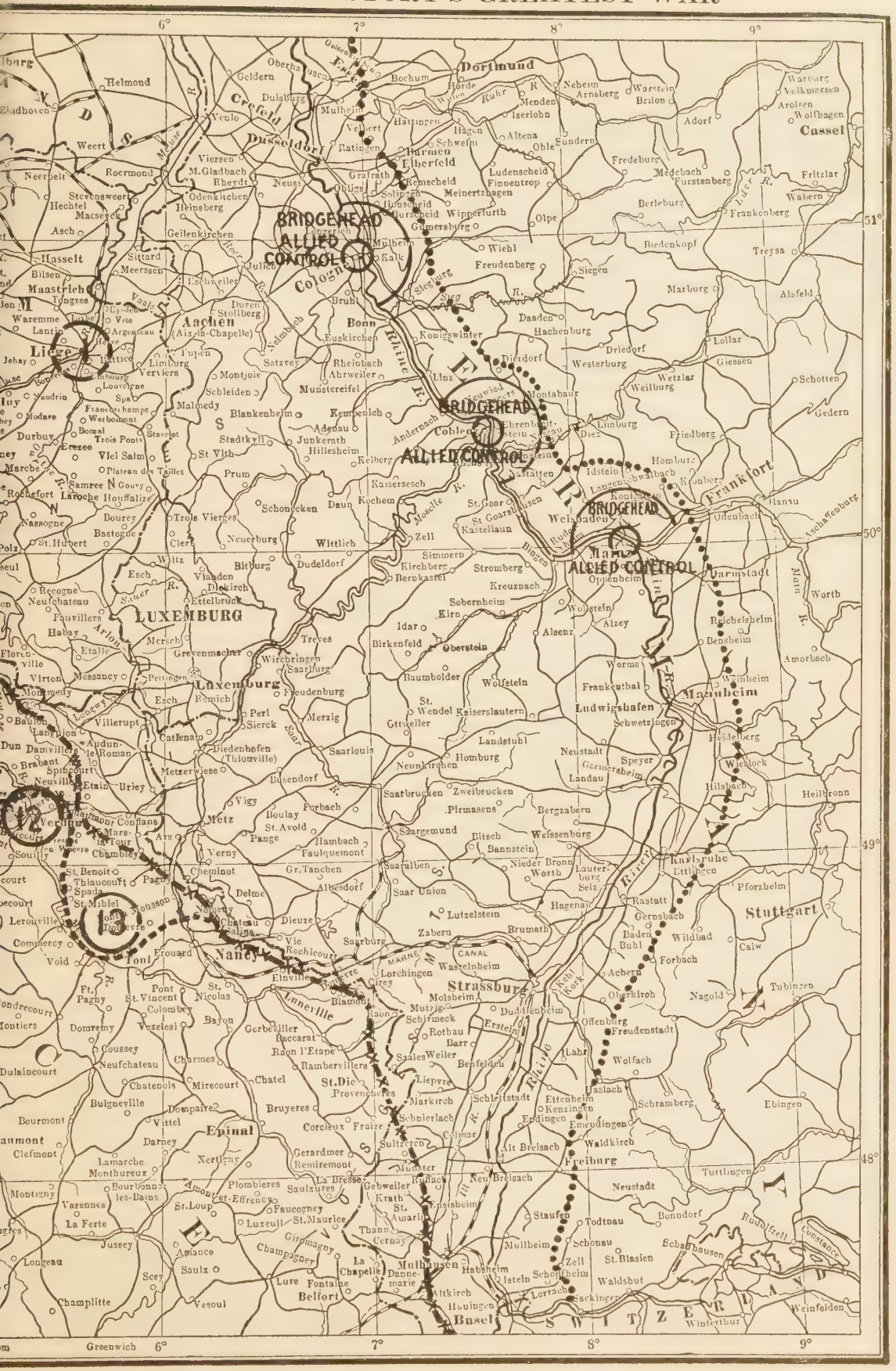
Railroads
Canals
Circles Denote Main Battles
Farthest German Advance
The Hindenburg Line
The Final Battle Line
German Retirement Line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ALLIED CONTROL
Cologne
BRIDGEHEAD
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Stuttgart
Strassburg
Nancy
Metz
Verdun
Toul
Epinal
St.Dié
Belfort
Mulhausen
Basel
Freiburg
Constance
Aachen
Liège
Luxemburg
Dortmund
Düsseldorf
Crefeld
Bonn
Coblenz
Wiesbaden
Darmstadt
Ludwigshafen
Kassel
Trèves
Thionville
Longwy
Sedan
Charleville
Rethel
Soissons
Laon
Reims
Châlons
Bar-le-Duc
Commercy
Toul
Pont-à-Mousson
Briey
Longuyon
Montmédy
Arlon
Neufchâteau
Bastogne
Saint-Hubert
Marche
Rochefort
Dinant
Namur
Charleroi
Mons
Tournai
Lille
Roubaix
Tourcoing
Ypres
Dixmude
Ostend
Bruges
Ghent
Antwerp
Turnhout
Hasselt
Maastricht
Eindhoven
Venlo
Roermond
Weert
Helmond
Tilburg
Breda
Rotterdam
The Hague
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nijmegen
Zwolle
Enschede
Groningen
Leeuwarden
Emden
Oldenburg
Bremen
Hamburg
Lübeck
Kiel
Flensburg
Rostock
Stettin
Berlin
Potsdam
Magdeburg
Hannover
Brunswick
Osnabrück
Münster
Paderborn
Kassel
Fulda
Würzburg
Nürnberg
Augsburg
Munich
Ingolstadt
Regensburg
Passau
Linz
Salzburg
Innsbruck
Bregenz
Zürich
Winterthur
Schaffhausen
Basel
Strassburg
Colmar
Mulhouse
Belfort
Besançon
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Troyes
Chaumont
Langres
Nancy
Metz
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Bitburg
Wittlich
Daun
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Cochem
Andernach
Neuwied
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Wetzlar
Giessen
Marburg
Fritzlar
Frankenberg
Brilon
Arnsberg
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Minden
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Celle
Lüneburg
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Bremen
Oldenburg
Wilhelmshaven
Emden
Leer
Meppen
Lingen
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Münster
Bielefeld
Gütersloh
Herford
Minden
Nienburg
Verden
Soltau
Uelzen
Lüneburg
Stade
Cuxhaven
Bremerhaven
Wesermünde
Delmenhorst
Bremen
Verden
Rotenburg
Zeven
Buxtehude
Harburg
Hamburg
Ahrensburg
Bad Oldesloe
Lübeck
Travemünde
Neustrelitz
Neubrandenburg
Pasewalk
Stettin
Swinemünde
Stargard
Pyritz
Greifenhagen
Schwedt
Frankfurt
Cottbus
Guben
Forst
Sorau
Sagan
Glogau
Liegnitz
Görlitz
Bautzen
Dresden
Meissen
Riesa
Torgau
Wittenberg
Dessau
Bernburg
Halberstadt
Quedlinburg
Wernigerode
Goslar
Hildesheim
Hameln
Minden
Bielefeld
Herford
Detmold
Lemgo
Höxter
Warburg
Brilon
Arnsberg
Siegen
Olpe
Gummersbach
Wipperfürth
Lüdenscheid
Altena
Iserlohn
Hagen
Schwelm
Elberfeld
Barmen
Remscheid
Solingen
Ronsdorf
Burscheid
Leverkusen
Opladen
Mülheim
Essen
Bochum
Dortmund
Hamm
Unna
Soest
Lippstadt
Paderborn
Detmold

American Soldiers Who Returned on the "Leviathan" Impersonating Fritz in His "Kamerad" Stuff.

save those which the common consent of mankind outside of "kultured" Germany has adjudged piratical. It warred with success only upon the weak and the defenseless. Its assigned role in the Hun scheme of world conquest was to starve out England. It failed and worse than failed.

For military reasons all the measures taken in dealing with the submarine have not yet been revealed. As usual, necessity quickened invention. It was discovered that airplanes flying over the sea could locate submarines under the surface. The seagull in its search for food betrayed them. They were entangled in nets swept between two vessels over their suspected lurking places. It is said that great steel nets barred against them the British channel entrance to the Atlantic and drawn across the straits of Otranto confined them in the Adriatic.

Apparently helpless freighters with concealed guns and bombs enticed them to destruction. As they could move only slowly under water, the American invention of the depth bomb aided their destruction. British ship yards built as never before to replace the losses they caused. When America entered the war she joined in the building race on a scale unknown since the world began. It was announced the other day that the ship yards of the free nations had replaced all the losses by submarines since the war began and were 500,000 tons ahead.

THE AMERICAN NAVY IN THE WAR

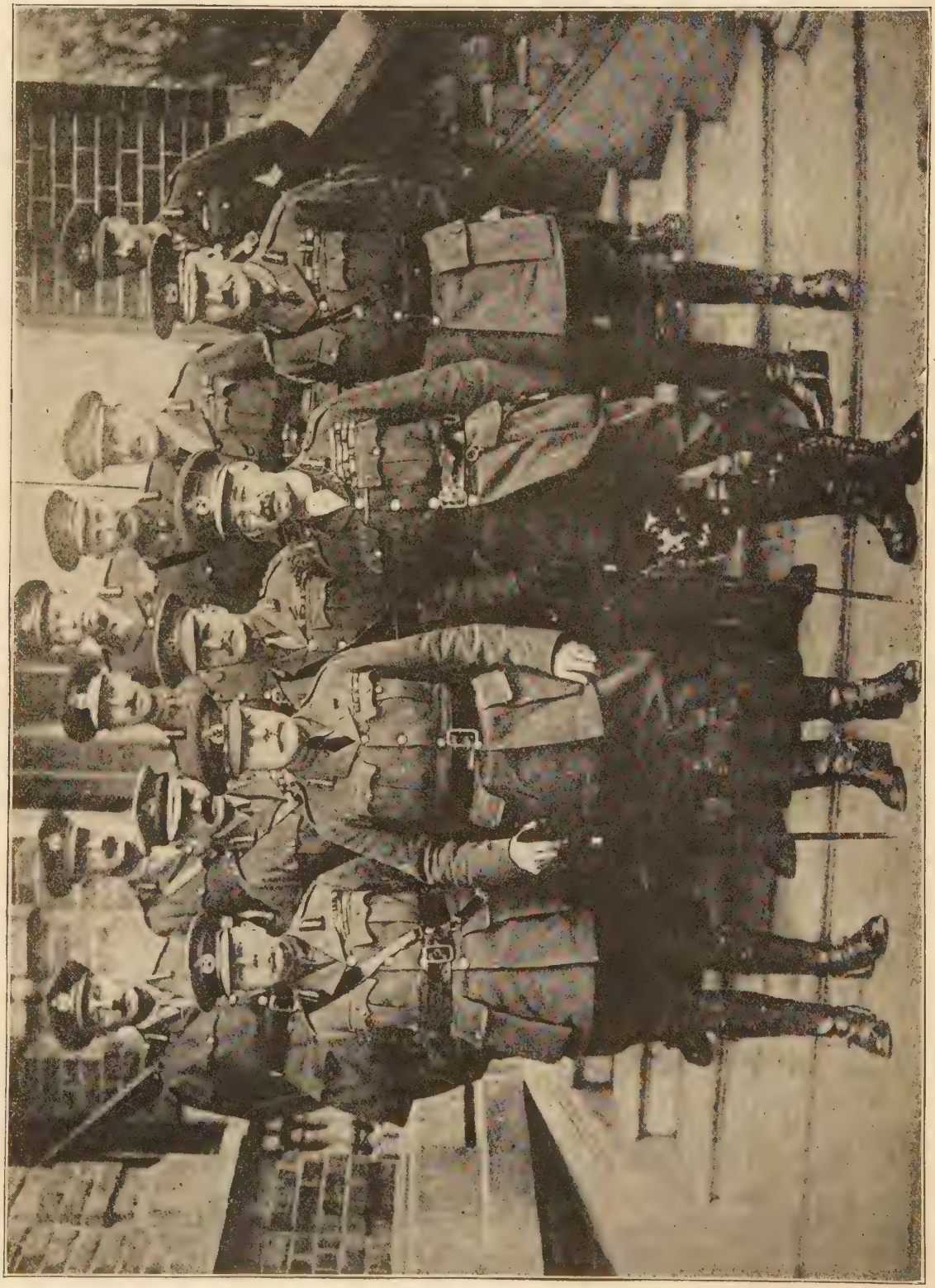
Slow in arousing to the truth that the Hun must be finally smashed on land in Europe, the United States had no great army prepared when on Good Friday, 1917, its government resolved that Hun outrages and insults could no longer be endured. But its navy was ready. In size it stood only fourth or fifth, but in efficiency it was second to none. No American will soon forget the thrill of pride he felt when the word came back from England that the first destroyer fleet had arrived, and what was the answer given to the inquiry, "When can you put to sea?"

Admiral Sims' answer was "Now."

Ex-Emperor Charles of Austria-Hungry and his Ex-Empress Zita.

After threshing through 3,000 miles of sea his destroyers were ready to go out and fight. They have had little fighting to do, and the heavy ships have had none. But with the British destroyers they have guarded safely to France transports that carried more than 2,000,000 men and all their supplies, and with practically no loss by submarines on the eastward voyage. But one troopship, the Tuscania, was sunk by a submarine on the way to Europe.

Had the Hun held out longer it is possible that American battleships might have had an opportunity to prove their power against the German fleet in the North sea. But the German navy, disgraced by submarine murders of noncombatants, was destined to end in the crowning disgrace to all naval discipline, capture by mutineers from its own lawful authority. Its masters violated every law of civilized warfare, and it is not unnatural that its



Gen. Sir Douglas Haig and British Army Commanders. These are British Army Commanders who safely guided Great Britain to victory.

men should finally be guilty of treason to their own criminal government. There is no honor among thieves when gripped by the law, and the pirate's hand turns against his fellow when Execution Dock looms in sight.

THE OTHER ALLIED FLEETS

France and Italy have done their part on the sea, as clearly noted, but it has been a part less visible from this side the Atlantic, and of which the full story is not yet known. Only fragments of the record have reached us here. We know they have done their share in curbing the submarine in the Mediterranean and have confined the Austrian fleet to the Adriatic. We know of such daring deeds as the penetration of the very harbor of Pola and the sinking of Austrian battleships there. But for the fuller record we must wait awhile.

The Russian fleet, before Russia collapsed under Hunnish corruption and bolshevik craziness, did its part with some distinction. Never strong enough in the Baltic to contend with the Germans there, it mastered the Black sea and aided in the Russian army's advance to Trebizond.

The Japanese fleet has done all that was asked of it and done it well. It aided in the extinction of German rule on the Chinese coast, and sent a squadron of destroyers to the Mediterranean to battle the submarine. It has been a reserve force which would have come into play had any reverse at sea befallen the fleets of the European allies.

Brazil has also contributed vessels to the guarding of the Atlantic against the submarine, and Greek vessels, since Constantine was expelled, have aided in the patrol of the eastern Mediterranean.

From a purely materialistic viewpoint the Hun did not unwisely in pinning his faith to the submarine. It has taken the united sea power of the free nations to put down its menace. Where the Hun miscalculated was, first, in believing that victory could be won by land power without predominating sea power; second, in so using his sea power as to make it clear that there could be no safety for the rest of the world until the Hun was not only swept from the seas, but also ground to powder on land.

The end of the war came with startling swiftness. Almost as suddenly as it broke upon the world, it collapsed in an abject defeat, not only of the German army, but much more significant, in the defeat and eradication of the German idea.

On July 15 of last year the German armies were threatening Paris. The capital of France was under bombardment by the seventy-five-mile gun. The troops of the United States were just beginning to arrive in sufficient numbers to constitute a real force. A great German drive started on the Marne. There it stopped, and in three days it was turned back into one of the great defeats of history, and after that date the allies enjoyed an unbroken procession of victories, while the central powers have fallen apart until there is left only Germany, with its cowering war lord running to take refuge from his people with his armies.

It is a different picture the blustering beast of Potsdam now presents from the pompous general seeking to conquer the continent of Europe and extend his dominions into Asia. Hand in hand with a "made in Germany" Gott, he promised his people the countries of Europe as their reward for making war. Now he is hiding while his people, anarchy rent, marching under the red flag, have brought about his abdication and the destruction of the house of Hohenzollern.

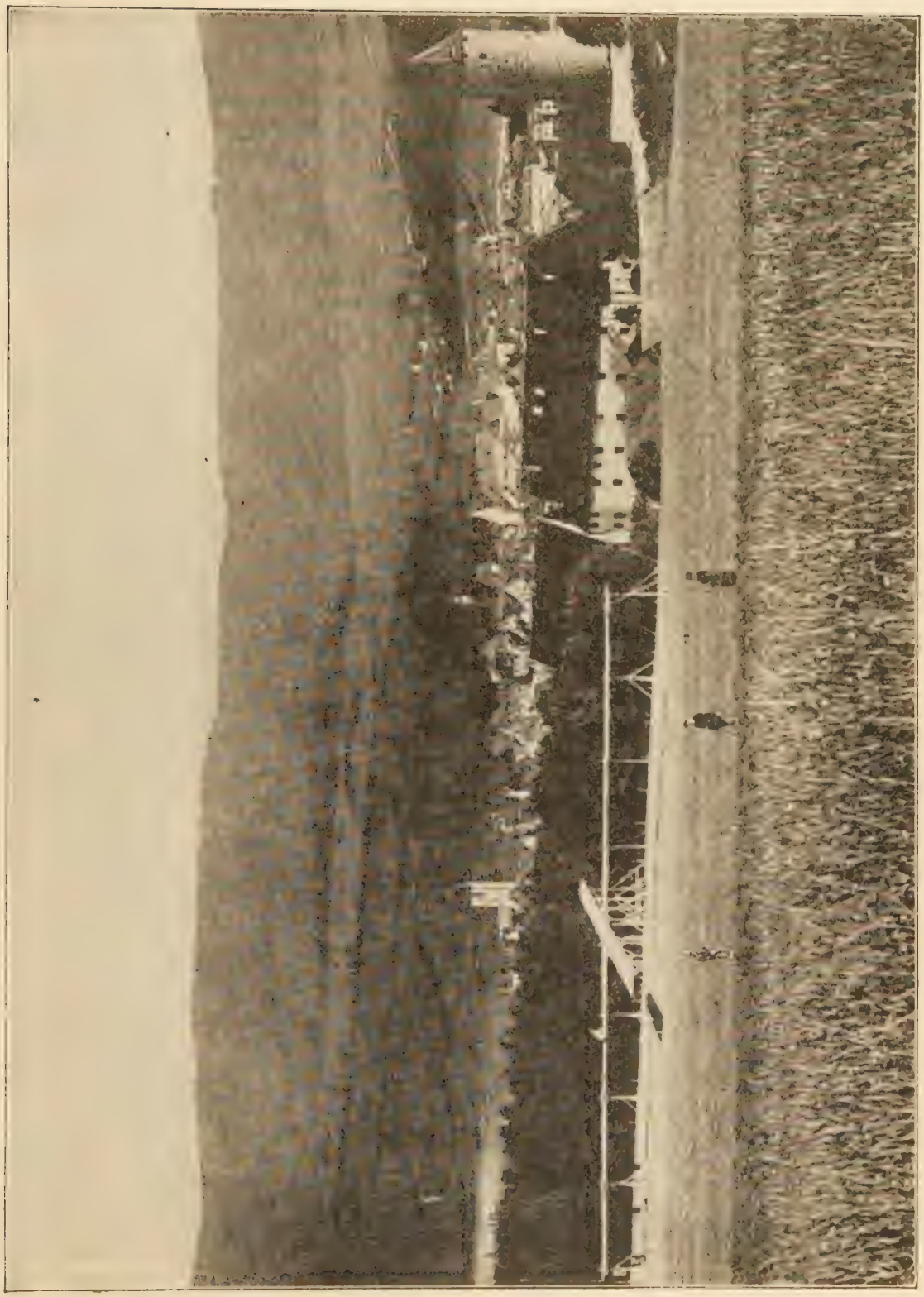
ELABORATE STRUCTURE IN RUINS

The elaborate structure he had built based on blood bonds and lust for power has disappeared. First it was Bulgaria, the haggling center of the Balkans, seeking its price in territory and power, which veered first to the allies and then finally fell into the German net. Bulgaria found itself beaten and rushed to cover. Then came the Turk and the great fortresses shutting off the Dardanelles and the ports

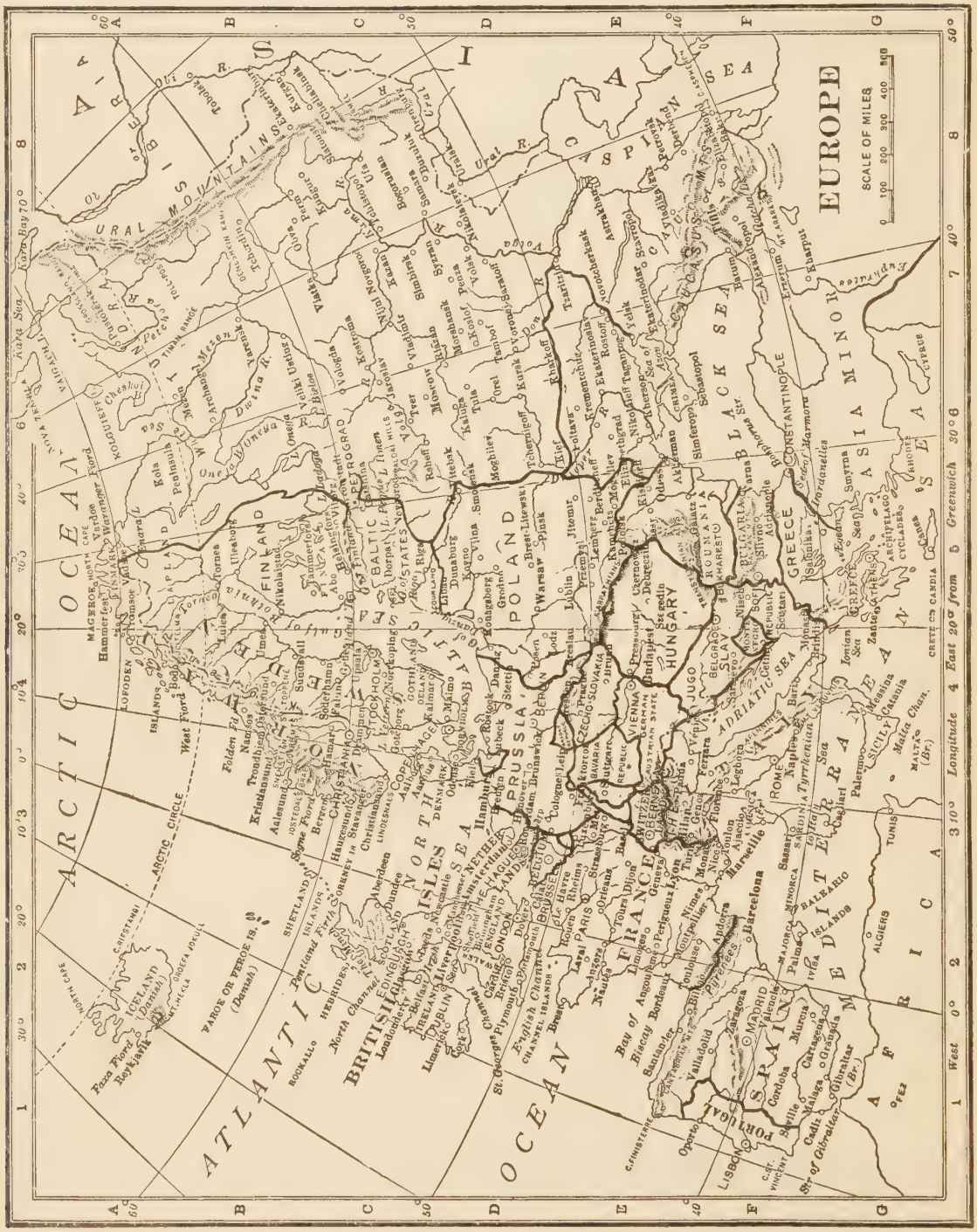
Italy, after a debacle at Caporetta, caused more by treason and German propaganda within than the strength of the Austrian army without, reorganized its shattered forces and turned upon Austria, overwhelmingly defeating Germany's chief aid and forcing upon her the most abject surrender ever recorded. Then Germany fell.

W. R. P.

Colored Band of the 814th Infantry Leaving the Celtic After Her Arrival.



Switzerland-German border lighted by electricity in form of crosses for aeroplane guidance.


EUROPE
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Aegean Sea
Ionian Sea
Tyrrhenian Sea
Sea of Marmora
Sea of Azov
Bay of Biscay
English Channel
North Channel
St. George's Channel
Irish Sea
Str. of Gibraltar
Malta Chan.
Greenwich
Longitude 4 East 20° from 5
West 0° 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40

BOOK II

Canada In The Great War

By

W. S. WALLACE, M. A. (Oxon.)

(Lately Major, Canadian Infantry)

Lecturer in History, University of Toronto

General Sir Arthur Currie with H. R. H. Prince Arthur of Connaught and divisional and brigadier generals.

Seated—Col. A. McPhail, Maj.-Gen. Lindsay, Maj.-Gen. A. C. Macdonnell, Prince Arthur of Connaught, Lieut-Gen. Sir. A. W. Currie, Maj.-Gen. Sir. H. E. Burstall, Brig.-Gen. G. A. Farmer, Brig.-Gen. H. A. Panet, Brig.-Gen. Brutinel.

Middle row—Lieut.-Col. J. A. Macdonald, Lieut.-Col. E. B. Anderson, Brig.-Gen. R. P. Clark, Brig.-Gen. V. W. Odlum, Brig.-Gen. J. H. McBrien, Brig.-Gen. J. A. Clark, Brig.-Gen. D. C. Draper, Brig.-Gen. D. M. Ormond, Brig.-Gen. Eric McCuaig, Brig.-Gen. W. A. Griesbach, Lieut.-Col. M. C. Festing.

Top row—Brig.-Gen. J. S. Stewart, Brig.-Gen. W. O. H. Dodds, Brig.-Gen. Bell, Brig.-Gen. A. E. Ross, Brig.-Gen. T. C. Trembley, Brig.-Gen. A. McNaughton, Lieut-Col. C. Bent, Col. Hertzberg; ....., O. C. Engineers; Maj. Sinclair, A. D. C. to Prince Arthur of Connaught; Capt. W. J. Shaughnessy, A. D. C to Sir Arthur Currie; Lieut. Gordon, A. D. C.

Canada In The Great War

CHAPTER I

THE FIRST CANADIAN CONTINGENT

CANADA IN THE LAP OF PEACE — THE OUTBREAK OF WAR — THE CALL TO ARMS — MOBILIZATION — VALCARTIER CAMP — THE FIRST CONTINGENT SAILS — THE WELCOME IN ENGLAND — LIFE ON SALISBURY PLAIN — THE FIRST DIVISION PROCEEDS TO FRANCE — THEIR BAPTISM OF FIRE — THE CANADIANS SAVE THE DAY AT YPRES — REORGANIZATION — FESTUBERT — GIVENCHY.

When the year 1914 dawned in Canada, there were few Canadians who dreamed that the year was destined to usher in the greatest war of modern, or indeed of ancient, times—a war in which tens of thousands of the flower of Canada's manhood were to lay down their lives. There had been at intervals before 1914 sundry warnings about "the German menace"; but many people had regarded these warnings as the cries of alarmists or of imperialistic politicians. Most people imagined too that if war did break out in Europe, it would be short and sharp, and would possibly be over before any Canadian troops could reach the theatre of operations.

The outbreak of war between Great Britain and Germany on August 4, 1914, therefore, found Canada comparatively unprepared. Canada had a few thousand permanent troops, and a militia system so inadequate that it had roused the scorn of German military writers, who had pronounced it a negligible factor so far as a European war was concerned; but the great mass of the Canadian people had hardly come to think in terms of war at all. Nevertheless, when war was declared, the Canadian government promptly cabled to England offering the services of Canadian troops. The offer was accepted with gratitude; and preparations were immediately begun for the mobilization of a division of approximately 20,000 men.

The story of this division, from its almost impromptu organization at Valcartier Camp, near Quebec, to its heroic stand at the Second Battle of Ypres, when it was all but wiped out of existence, and when, as Sir John French said, it "saved the day" for the allies, is one of the most dramatic and amazing episodes of the great War. A hastily formed and partially trained body of citizen soldiers, the First Canadian Contingent won for themselves, almost at the moment of their arrival in France, a reputation second to none on the Western front.

Valcartier had already been selected as a military training ground before the war broke out; but little had been done to put it in shape to serve as a mobilization centre for an expeditionary force of over 20,000 men. On the day after war was declared, however, the engineers were already at work at the camp; and in less than three weeks there had sprung up like magic what is perhaps one of the finest military encampments in the world. A mile of rifle ranges was constructed; a waterworks system, a telephone system, and an electric light system were installed; storehouses, offices, a moving picture palace, rose overnight; and ordnance stores began to pour in by the C. N. R. stub-line that runs past the valley.

By the middle of August the troops had begun to arrive. By the end of August over 30,000 volunteers, from all

parts of the Dominion, were in camp. Each militia unit had been assigned a definite quota; but in nearly every case the local contingents arrived far over strength. Hundreds of men jumped on the troop trains and came on their own responsibility. Several regiments, such as the Queen's Own of Toronto and the Royal Highlanders of Montreal, sent each a whole battalion. The Fort Garry Horse a strain which at times neared the breaking-point.

At first all was confusion. Detachments were juggled about from battalion to battalion, and juggled back again. Commanding officers were changed almost daily. Brigades were formed, and broken up again. But gradually order emerged out of chaos. The final reorganization was completed; the troops were medically

Canadian and German wounded receiving first aid in a village which only a few hours before was in the hands of the Germans responsible for the scene of ruin and devastation which it presents. (Canadian official photograph.)

of Winnipeg chartered two trains themselves, and came down to Valcartier without authority; and no one had the heart to send them back. The arrivals were a motley crew. Some wore mufti, some wore khaki, and some wore the black or scarlet serges of their militia units. The task of equipping them, and even of accommodating them, threw a tremendous strain on the administrative departments, examined, inoculated, and equipped with service uniforms; training was begun, and the rifle ranges re-echoed with the cracking fusilade of musketry practice. By the middle of September, the camp had shaken down into a well-ordered routine.

It had been originally intended to send overseas only one division with the necessary reinforcements; but at the last minute the government announced that the

whole force of 33,000 men would be sent at once. Toward the end of September, the necessary arrangements having been made with the Admiralty, the First Contingent embarked at Quebec in over thirty transports. The flotilla was concentrated at Gaspé Bay, where it was met by a convoy of British warships; and on October 3, the entire Armada, — containing the largest military force which had ever crossed the Atlantic at one time, — set sail for the Great War. In three long parallel lines of about a dozen ships each, with flags flying and signals twinkling, it made an imposing sight for the handful of people who saw it off.

The massed Canadian pipe bands, playing at field sports of the Expeditionary Force—a sight to delight the eye and stir the blood of every son or descendant of Auld Scotia, whose martial music has led the way to victory for the British flag in many a clime. (Canadian official photograph.)

Two weeks of glorious October weather brought the contingent to England. Here it was disembarked at Plymouth, the ancient home of so many of those Devon sea-dogs who had first turned the thoughts of Englishmen to the New World. The landing of the Canadians was unheralded; but their welcome by the people of Plymouth was a royal one. As the troops marched through the town, the townspeople mingled in and through the ranks; and the arm of many a Canadian soldier found its way around the waist of a Devon lass. The day was symbolic; it was the first tangible evidence in the Great War of the solidarity of the far-flung dominions of the British Empire.

The area allotted by the War Office to the Canadians was Salisbury Plain. This was a group of camps, in the south of England, which offered in summer weather an almost perfect training ground. For a few days the Canadians were charmed with their new surroundings. Then the weather broke. There followed one of the worst winters on record even in England, that country of dreary winters. The rain poured down day after day; the roads became impassable; the Plain itself soon became a morass. Everything grew saturated with wet — tents, clothes, even tobacco and matches. Training was impossible; and sickness grew among the troops until the hospitals were filled to overflowing.

Human nature can stand so much, and no more. In Canada the First Contingent had been extraordinarily well-behaved; and later in France it showed that it could face without flinching the terrors of the German poison gas. But the mud of Salisbury Plain it could not abide. Hundreds of men broke camp, and fled in search of a few days' dry comfort. Some men went away, not to return until they heard that the First Division was leaving for France. Absence without leave became an epidemic, a plague. Punishment

was unavailing to stop it. Men went away, lived like lords at London hotels, came back, and accepted their punishment quietly as the price they were willing to pay for a few days' respite from mud and misery.

The first Canadians to go to France, apart from a hospital unit, were the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry. This regiment, which was composed mainly of British reservists and old soldiers, had been raised separately from the Canadian Contingent, through the generosity of a Montreal millionaire, who was destined to play a heroic part as one of its officers. Its colours had been worked by Princess Patricia herself. Early in December, 1914, the Princess Pats, as a crack regiment, were ordered to proceed to France, and there they joined the 27th British Division. Not until a year later did they rejoin the Canadians.

The First Canadian Division did not leave for France until the beginning of the following February. Under Lieut.-Gen. Alderson, an Imperial officer who had been appointed to command the Canadians, it sailed from Avonmouth, and after a most stormy passage through the Bay of Biscay, landed at St. Nazaire in the south of France. Its first experiences in France were not remarkable. It went through the usual stage of apprenticeship in what was relatively a quiet part of the line. The Canadian artillery took part in March in the ill-starred battle of Neuve Chapelle, and the infantry were on the outskirts of the fighting. If the day had gone better, the whole division would doubtless have been engaged, but fate did not so order it. For three months the Canadians had a fairly undisturbed opportunity to initiate themselves into the mysteries of modern warfare.

In the middle of April, the Canadian Division took over from the French a

Major-General (now Lieut.-Gen.) Sir R. E. W. Turner, V. C., C. B., who commanded the 2nd Division.

Major-General E. A. H. Alderson, the British Commander of the First Contingent, Canadian Expeditionary Force.

sector to the north of Ypres, in Belgian Flanders. By this time trench warfare had reduced the situation on the Western front to comparative deadlock. Neither side was able to advance, and the war threatened to become one of exhaustion. This did not suit the book of the Germans, who had pinned their hopes to a quick decision. In an endeavour to break the deadlock, they brought into use a device which they had already planned, but which even they had hitherto hesitated to employ, the infernal invention of poison gas. In the late afternoon of April 22, long yellow clouds of asphyxiating gas were released against the French colonial troops who were on the immediate left of the Canadians. The Turcos and Zouaves, troops of reckless courage, but at the same time superstitious natives of North Africa, were swept back by the poisonous fumes in agony of mind and body, and the German masses advanced to the attack.

The situation of the Canadians was one of the most critical which could arise in warfare. Their left flank was completely in the air, and they were outnumbered at least five to one. If they retired, it was probable that the whole of the British forces in the Ypres salient would be surrounded and captured, and it was possible that the Germans might reach the Channel ports. Under the circumstances, the only thing to do was to stand fast. Gen-

General Sir Arthur Currie, commander of the Canadian Corps, unveiling memorial erected by the Canadian Artillery in honor of the artillerymen who fell at Vimy Ridge. The cross weighs three and one-half tons and Boche shells surround the base.

eral Alderson withdrew his left flank, so as to meet an attack from the northwest, and he shortened the rest of his line; but after the first shock of the German attack was over, the Canadians' line did not budge. The strength of their defense, and the success of two brilliant and heroic counter-attacks, undertaken in defiance of all military precept, gave the Germans the impression that they were in greater force than they were. The German attack was, consequently, never fully pressed home. Gradually the British reserves began to arrive, cheering their Canadian comrades as they came, and by April 25, after three days of ceaseless fighting, the sorely-tried Canadians were relieved.

When the Canadian Division came out of the trenches that April day it had almost ceased to exist. Many battalions marched out only one-fifth or one-sixth of their original strength. One or two battalions could barely muster 100 men. But like the immortal Seventh Division in the first battle of Ypres, the Canadians had been victorious in death. If we are to believe the British commander-in-chief, they had saved the day at one of the critical points of the war. And what makes their achievement the more remarkable is the fact that, compared with the regular troops of the European armies, they were, for the most part, untrained and amateur soldiers. Neither at Valcartier nor on Salisbury Plain had conditions been such as to make thorough training possible. Nothing but their high and dauntless spirit carried them through the

A divisional headquarters on the British front in France during the progress of a battle, showing troops in reserve, German prisoners, and stretcher-bearers at work. (Australian official photograph, by British and Colonial Press.)

German prisoners captured by Canadians during a French raid, with one of their captors. The Canadians became noted for the success of their raids by day and night and seldom failed to bring back prisoners. (Canadian official photograph.)

furnace of the second battle of Ypres.

Until the middle of May, the remnants of the division remained in rest billets. Meanwhile, however, reinforcements were coming forward from the reserves left behind in England; and in a brief space of time the division was back at full strength. Reorganized and revived, it took part in two of the battles of the early summer of 1915, Festubert and Givenchy. These engagements were on a small scale, and produced results measured only in yards; but they were bitterly fought, and the casualties sustained in them still further depleted the nucleus of "original Firsts" remaining in France. By the end of the summer, the number of men in France who wore the colored shoulder straps of the First Contingent had become pitifully few. The division had become largely a new force, ready to be merged in the larger formation of the Canadian Corps. on the arrival in France of the Second Division.

ENGLAND
FRANCE
BELGIUM
GERMANY
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
CHANNEL ISLANDS
CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
LIGURIAN SEA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ELBA
RIVIERA
ALSACE
LORRAINE
PARIS
Lille
Dunkerque
Boulogne
Calais
Brighton
Southampton
Plymouth
Exeter
Cherbourg
Le Havre
Rouen
Amiens
Arras
Metz
Strasbourg
Nancy
Verdun
Reims
Soissons
Chalons sur Marne
Belfort
Dijon
Lyon
Marseille
Nice
Monaco
Menton
Ventimiglia
San Remo
Pro Maurizio
Genoa
Gulf of Genoa
Turin
Milan
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Nimes
Montpellier
Perpignan
Carcassonne
Biarritz
Pau
Lourdes
Bayonne
Hendaye
Irun
Andorra
Gibraltar
Algeciras
Port Vendres
Gulf of Lion
Avignon
Orange
Valence
Grenoble
Chambery
Annecy
Geneva
Lausanne
Berne
Zurich
Basle
Strasbourg
Mulhouse
Colmar
Metz
Thionville
Longwy
Sedan
Mezieres
Charleroi
Namur
Liege
Brussels
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Dieppe
Rouen
Le Havre
Cherbourg
Caen
Lisieux
Bayeux
Falaise
Alencon
Le Mans
Tours
Orleans
Chartres
Versailles
Fontainebleau
Melun
Troyes
Chalons sur Marne
Epernay
Rheims
Laon
Soissons
Compiegne
Amiens
Abbeville
Boulogne
Calais
Dunkirk
Ypres
Lille
Roubaix
Tourcoing
Courtrai
Ghent
Antwerp
Brussels
Namur
Liege
Verviers
Aachen
Coblenz
Mainz
Frankfort
Karlsruhe
Freiburg
Basle
Zurich
Lucerne
Berne
Geneva
Lausanne
Montreux
Martigny
Chamonix
Mont Blanc
Aosta
Ivrea
Turin
Pinerolo
Susa
Modane
Chambery
Grenoble
Valence
Orange
Avignon
Arles
Marseille
Toulon
Hyeres
St Tropez
Frejus
Cannes
Antibes
Nice
Menton
Monaco
Ventimiglia
San Remo
Pro Maurizio
Genoa
Savona
Ajaccio
Bastia
Porto Vecchio
Bonifacio
Calvi
Corte
Sartene
Palermo
Cagliari
Alghero
Sassari
Olbia
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Rimini
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Perugia
Rome
Naples
Vesuvius
Capua
Gaeta
Salerno
Amalfi
Sorrento
Capri
Foggia
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
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Messina
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Palermo
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Sicily
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Catania
Syracuse
Messina
Reggio
Naples
Rome
Vesuvius
Capua
Gaeta
Salerno
Amalfi
Sorrento
Capri
Foggia
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
Otranto
Corfu
Albania
Durazzo
Valona
Scutari
Montenegro
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Chartres
Versailles
Fontainebleau
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Porto Vecchio
Bonifacio
Calvi
Corte
Sartene
Palermo
Cagliari
Alghero
Sassari
Olbia
Elba
Piombino
Leghorn
Pisa
Florence
Rimini
Ancona
Perugia
Rome
Naples

The Growth of The Canadian Corps

CHAPTER II

THE SECOND DIVISION ARRIVES IN FRANCE — THE FORMATION OF THE CANADIAN CORPS — PATROLS — THE CANADIANS PIONEERS IN TRENCH-RAIDING — THE CREATION OF THE THIRD DIVISION — ST. ELOI — SANCTUARY WOOD — THE CANADIANS COME BACK — THE ARRIVAL OF THE FOURTH DIVISION — ON THE SOMME — — COURCELETTE — REGINA TRENCH — THE CANADIAN CORPS AS AN INSTRUMENT OF WARFARE.

Hardly had the First Canadian Contingent left the shores of Canada when the Canadian government proceeded to authorize the recruiting of a second contingent. During the winter of 1914-1915 the units composing this new force were mobilized and trained at various centres throughout the Dominion; and in the spring of 1915 they sailed, not in one Armada like the First Contingent, but in separate transports, for England. The summer of 1915 was spent in training at Shorncliffe, on the Kentish coast, which now became a great Canadian military centre in England; and in September, 1915, the Second Division left Shorncliffe for the front, under the command of Major-Gen. R. E. W. Turner, a Canadian soldier, who had won the Victoria Cross in the South African War.

The landing of the Second Division in France had one dramatic feature. There had been in the First Division French Canadians scattered through the various units; but in the Second Division there was a whole battalion, the 22nd, composed entirely of French Canadians. The arrival of this battalion on French soil, from which its ancestors had emigrated over three centuries before, and which it had now come to defend, was an incident full of dramatic quality.

The Second Division joined the First in the southern portion of the Ypres salient, which was for so long a Canadian sector. As soon as the junction was completed, the Canadian Corps came into existence. An army corps is an indefinite number of divisions, placed under a corps commander. The two Canadian divisions were now placed under the command of General Alderson, who relinquished the command of the First Division to Major-General Currie; and the Corps thus embarked on the career which, after its growth from two to four divisions, was to make it one of the most efficient and famous fighting forces on the Western front.

From the first the men of the Canadian Corps proved themselves adepts in the new features of the stationary trench warfare which had taken the place of the old war of movement. One of the developments of 1915 was the science of bombing. Bombing was an ancient mode of warfare, and it had played a part in the Russo-Japanese War; but the British had not foreseen the part that it would come to play in the Great War, and they were ill-equipped with bombs. Under these circumstances, the men in the field invented such home-made grenades as the jam-tin bomb and the hair-brush. In the use of these crude missiles the Canadians showed themselves past-masters. Their proficiency at games like baseball and lacrosse gave them a steadiness of hand and eye which stood them in good stead in bombing, and made them unpleasant op-

ponents. Another development of trench warfare was patrol-fighting in No Man's Land. Here too the Canadians proved themselves no mean adversaries. The woodcraft which most Canadians had in their blood, inherited from fathers and grandfathers who had been mighty hunters before the Lord, gave them an advantage from the first in the midnight encounters between the trenches. Save for a period when an adventurous Saxon corps strove to dispute with them the supremacy of No Man's Land, the Canadian patrols ranged almost at will along the German wire.

A Canadian General of Division explaining the use of a machine gun against enemy aircraft to Hon. J. D. Hazen, the Canadian Minister of Marine and Fisheries, during his visit to the battlefront. (Canadian official photograph.)

It is difficult to say just when trench-raiding by night began on the Western front. But in the development of the art of raiding enemy trenches the Canadians have a good claim to be regarded as pioneers. Early in November, 1915, the Canadian staff came to the conclusion that strong parties of determined troops, working on carefully rehearsed lines, could enter the enemy trenches, inflict damage and casualties out of all proportion to their own losses, make prisoners, and get away. The event fully justified this belief. A raid was planned against the German positions at La Petite Douve; and on a dark night a raiding party from the 7th Battalion crossed the Douve River, entered the German trenches, killed at least fifty of the enemy, wrought untold damage on dug-outs and machine-gun emplacements, and brought back twelve prisoners, with the total loss to themselves of one killed and one wounded. Not all raids, of course, were so successful as this. During the winter of 1915-1916 several Canadian raids were repulsed with heavy losses. But gradually experience brought greater surety of success. On January 30, 1916, a most successful raid

was carried out by parties from the 28th and 29th Battalions, who blackened their faces in order to avoid detection from the German flares. It was a Canadian officer, too, who hit upon the happy idea of attiring a raiding party, when the ground was covered with snow, in white cotton nightgowns purchased in a shop in a little French town behind the lines. And in the summer of 1916 the 19th Battalion went a step further, when they carried out in broad daylight a dash into the enemy lines which may fairly be described as the first daylight raid on the Western front.

Just after New Year's Day, 1916, the Canadian Corps was strengthened by the addition of the Third Division, the formation of which had been authorized the preceding December. In this division were included the Princess Pats, who had joined the Canadians shortly before, after a year of the severest fighting with the British, and the Canadian Mounted Rifles, who were now transformed into infantry. The command of the division was placed in the hands of Major-Gen. Mercer, an officer greatly loved by his men who was destined to lay down his life on the battlefield the following summer.

The fighting of the year 1916 was among the bitterest and least spectacular of the whole war. The first heavy fighting in which the Canadians were engaged was that about the craters at St. Eloi, at the southern end of the Ypres salient, in the month of April. This sector had been much fought over. Mine and countermine had been sprung; the ground had been churned up by shell-fire; and the rains had made it a veritable quagmire. On April 2 the Third British Division had established themselves on a line well within the former German defences. The next day they were relieved by the Second Canadian Division. The position which the Canadians took up was not consolidated; and before any consolidation could be carried out, the German counter-attack developed in strength. The Canadian advance posts were overwhelmed, and nearly all the gains of the British

H. M. King George V.

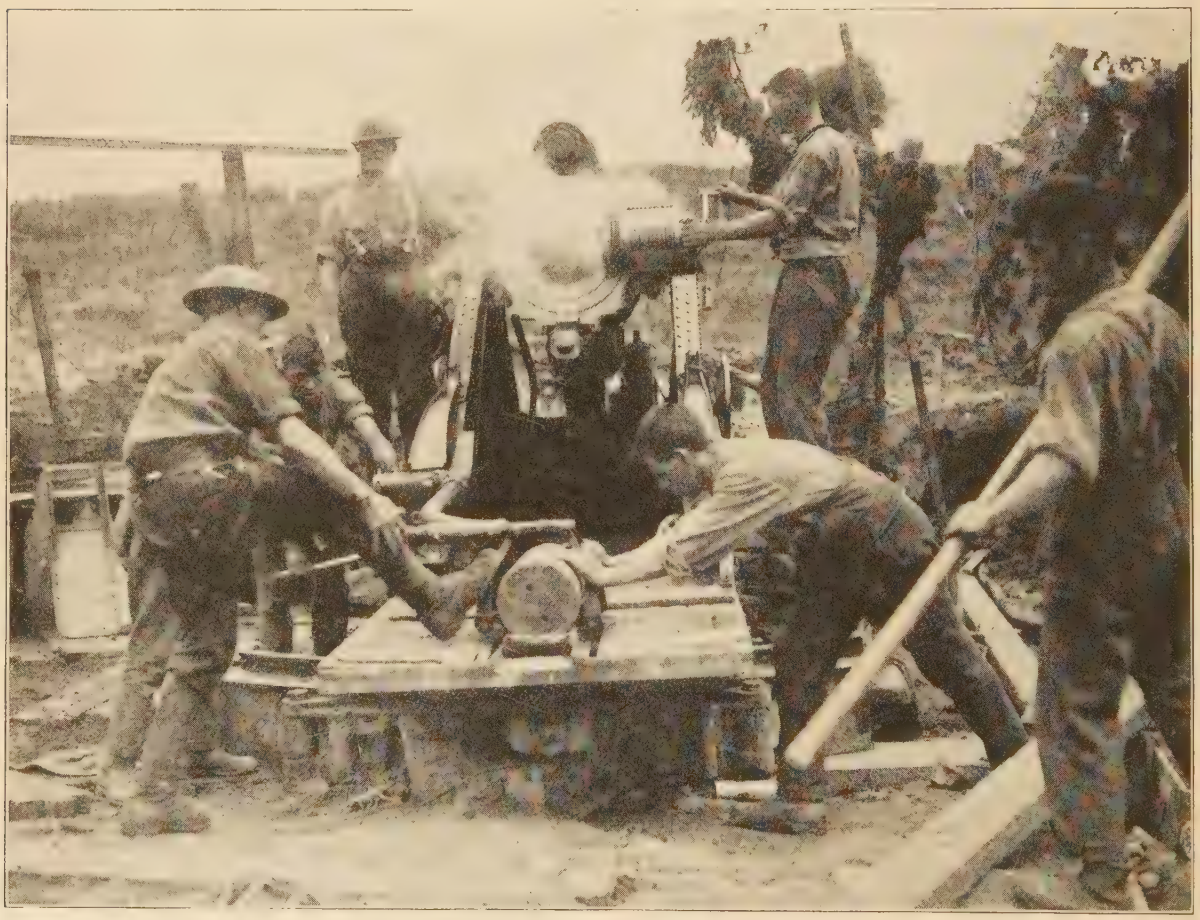
were surrendered. The Canadians were not accustomed to accept defeat; and for two weeks they strove repeatedly to recover the lost ground. In the end they had to give up the attempt as impossible, and to dig in on the line from which the British had set out.

The battle of St. Eloi was the only occasion in the Great War when the Canadian Corps had to admit defeat. Whether the failure was due to bad staff work, or to the inability of regimental officers to read their maps properly, or to the impossible conditions under which the fighting was carried on, is difficult to determine. Certainly it was not due to any deficiency on the part of the Canadian soldier. The rank and file of the Canadian army fought at St. Eloi with a courage, a determination, a doggedness which could not have been surpassed; they did all that it was possible for human beings to do, amid mud and rain and darkness, and the withering play of machine-guns, and the obliterating crash of the most in-

tense shell-fire they had yet encountered.

Two months later, at Sanctuary Wood, directly east of Ypres, the Third Canadian Division had an experience which threatened at first to be a repetition of the reverse at St. Eloi. On the morning of June 2, 1916, there broke on the trenches occupied by the Mounted Rifles and the Princess Pats a tornado of shell-fire such as had not before that time been seen on the Western front. To such a point had the Germans brought the science of massed artillery preparation that no troops in the world could withstand it. It destroyed not only a line of trenches but a whole area, and almost every living thing within the area. When, therefore, the German attacking wave came over in the early afternoon of June 2, they met with little opposition. A few knots of dazed survivors surrendered, or died fighting; and the Germans swept on to their final objective.

As so often happened, however, the Germans did not press their advantage to the full; and the arrival of reserves made it possible for the Canadians to hold up a further advance. But a counter-attack undertaken the following day failed; and on June 6 the Canadians lost the village of Hooge to the north. It began to look as though the Canadians had once more been worsted. They had lost Major-Gen. Mercer, who had been killed, and Brig.-Gen. Williams, who had been severely wounded and taken prisoner; and whole battalions had been virtually wiped out of existence. No doubt the Germans thought that they could rest on their laurels.



Canadian artillery strafing the Hun near Angres. The work of the big guns in Canadian hands was remarkably effective, and they were kept busy when the infantry lay inactive in the trenches. (Canadian official photograph.)

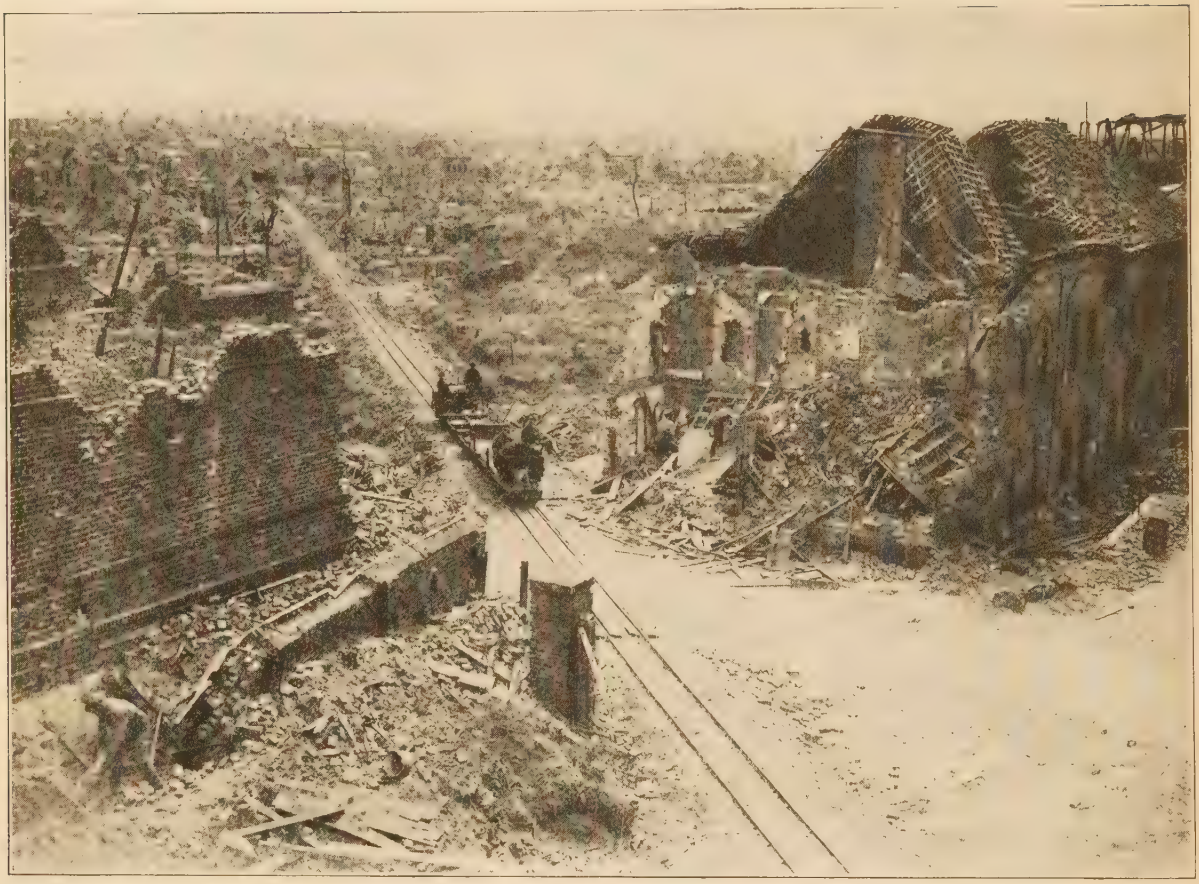
General Sir Arthur Currie, K. C. B., D. S. O., Commander of the Canadian Army at the front when the war ended.

But Sir Julian Byng, who had succeeded General Alderson as the Corps Commander, had not shot his last bolt. He resolved to teach the Germans the lesson that two could play at the same game of intensive artillery preparation; and he assembled on the Canadian front a concourse of guns of overwhelming proportions. On June 12 these guns blew the Germans out of their trenches, just as the Canadians had been blown out of them a few days before; and a dashing attack by the First Division, under Major-Gen. Currie, completely re-established the lost positions. The "Byng Boys", as the Canadians now came to be known, had demonstrated the fact that, under any but hopeless conditions, they could turn defeat into victory.

In August, 1916, the Canadian Corps was brought up to what was henceforth to be its full strength by the arrival in France of the Fourth Division. At this date the first battle of the Somme was in full blast. In the earlier stages of this terrible and prolonged struggle the Canadians had no part. It was not, indeed, until the beginning of September that the Canadian Corps was moved down to the battle area; and not until the middle of September was the Corps engaged in any serious action.

From the middle of September, however, to the middle of November the Corps bore its full share of the Somme fighting. The first important action in which the Canadians were engaged was the capture of the sugar refinery at Courcelette on September 15, an incident rendered more notable by the fact that on this occasion the Tanks for the first time coöperated with the Canadian infantry. The following day the Canadians swept on and captured the village of Courcelette itself, in one of the neatest and most clean-cut operations of the Somme fighting. Of this success a memorable feature was the dashing attack of the 22nd French-Canadian Battalion, who proved themselves on this occasion true cousins of the wonderful infantry of France. For many days the Germans strove stubbornly to retake Courcelette; but their efforts resulted only in further loss of ground and further punishment.

At a later stage of the fighting the Canadians suffered heavy losses in the taking of Regina Trench. This was a line of German defences beyond Courcelette which it took the Corps a full month to capture. As the autumn had advanced,



A tramway track, used to supply the Canadian Corps, running through the ruins of a French village destroyed by German shell-fire. Narrow-gauge roads like this, operated by motors, proved invaluable in bringing up supplies and moving the wounded to the rear. (Canadian official photograph.)

the weather had broken, and the heavy glutinous Somme mud had made the problem of the attacking troops heart-breakingly difficult. Nevertheless, in the end success crowned their efforts; and with the capture of Desire Trench, which was the German support line, the Canadians were able, in the latter part of November, to leave the Somme with a record of unbroken victory.

The end of 1916 found the Canadian Corps finally fashioned into the instrument of warfare which during 1917 and 1918 was to be the spear-head of many an attack. It had now attained the strength of four divisions; and in the fighting about Courcelette and Regina and Desire Trenches these four divisions had been welded into a coherent and efficient unit. The growth and development of the Canadian Corps was complete.

The Canadian Corps, 1917

CHAPTER III

BEFORE VIMY RIDGE — WINTER IN THE TRENCHES — DAYLIGHT RAIDS — THE ASSAULT ON VIMY — ARLEUX AND FRESNOY — THE ATTACK ON LENS — HILL 70 — THE TAKING OF PASSCHENDAELE RIDGE — BELLEVUE SPUR — BACK BEFORE LENS.

When the Canadians left the Somme in the autumn of 1916, they did not return to their old hunting-grounds in the Ypres salient, but were assigned a new front on the sector facing the long upland known as Vimy Ridge. This was ground which had been much fought over by the French, who had the previous year actually captured a large part of the ridge, but had subsequently been driven from it. The ground was a maze of trenches, known most appropriately as the Labyrinth, and it was completely overlooked by the German observation posts on the ridge.

The sector had, since the murderous fighting between the French and the Germans the previous year, been fairly quiet. The British troops from whom the Canadians took over had been content merely to hold their ground; and the Germans, from their advantageous position on the ridge, had been content to take daily toll of their opponents in the low-lying trenches before them. The arrival of the Canadians, however, marked the beginning of a more lively period. Canadian snipers, silent men from the bush or the prairies with many a notch on the butts of their rifles, taught the Hun the value of cover; Canadian scouts nightly patrolled the shell-holes and craters of No Man's Land, practically driving the Huns from it; and Canadian raiding parties made frequent unwelcome visits to the German trenches. It was not long before the Germans adopted the policy of holding their front line very lightly, especially at night.

An interesting feature of this winter warfare was the development by the Canadians of daylight trench-raiding. Daylight raids had been practised by the Canadians as early as the summer of 1916; but these had been cut-and-run affairs. Just before Christmas, 1916, the 1st C. M. R.'s carried out the first daylight raid on a large scale. A body of picked men, numbering about 400, rehearsed the raid for a week beforehand on imaginary trenches taped out behind the lines; and then, after a whirlwind bombardment of the German trenches, walked over, in broad daylight, spent two hours in the German front and support lines, captured over 100 prisoners, and returned with comparatively slight casualties.

Not all such raids proved uniformly successful. One raid in particular, undertaken by the 75th Battalion against the German lines in front of Vimy Ridge, was very costly. Instead of artillery preparation, a gas attack was used to pave the way for the operation; but atmospheric conditions nullified the effect of the gas, and when the raiders went over the top, they were greeted by a hot fire from the opposing trenches. The commanding officer, the second in command, and many men were killed. Yet even on this occasion the raid was pushed home, and the chief objectives were attained.

With the advent of spring came the long-awaited British offensive. The British First and Third Armies attacked on a wide front before Arras; and the Canadian Corps was assigned the task of tak-

Brig.-Gen. A. C. MacDonnell (now Major-General), who commanded the 7th Brigade.

ing Vimy Ridge. The German defences were subjected to a three days' bombardment by a colossal assemblage of artillery, and this was followed by an intense barrage of shrapnel preceding the assault. Then, in the early morning of April 9, the attack was launched. Except at Hill 145, at the northern end of the ridge, where a temporary check was sustained, the Canadians advanced through the three German lines of defence on a time-table. By the end of the first day they were well up to the crest of the ridge, and had taken thousands of prisoners at slight cost to themselves. The following day the advance was continued; and the Canadians swept over the crest of the ridge. By April 13 the reverse slope of the ridge had been cleared of the Germans, and a number of villages well within the German lines, including Givenchy-en-Gohelle, Vimy, Petit Vimy, Willerval, and Bailleul, were firmly in Canadian hands. The whole operation was perhaps the most successful and spectacular which had been carried out on the British front. The Germans had believed their defences on Vimy Ridge impregnable; and the manner in which the Canadians had taken them in their stride firmly established the Canadian Corps in their reputation as storm-troops.

On April 28 the Canadians entered the second phase of the battle of Arras with the capture of Arleux-en-Gohelle and the German trench system known as the Arleux Loop. This was followed, in the beginning of May, by the capture by the Canadians of Fresnoy. In both of these operations bitter opposition was encountered; and Fresnoy, which was the apex of the British advance, had to be evacuated on May 8 by the British troops who relieved the Canadians.

After the battle of Arras the Canadian Corps was moved north to the sector opposite Lens. This town, with its surrounding mining suburbs and slag-heaps, was a hard nut to crack by frontal attack; and when the Canadians laid siege to it, they applied the pincers to it by means of flanking assaults. First they drove in to the south of it by the capture of La Coulotte village, with its electric power station, on June 26, and the subsequent capture of Avion and Eleu dit Leauvette. Next, they attacked on August 15 Hill 70, to the north of Lens. Hill

70 had been reached, but not held, by the British in the battle of Loos in September, 1915. Since then it had been further strengthened, and was a formidable obstacle. It was captured, however, after a bitter struggle; and with it fell three of the north-western suburbs of Lens. Without doubt Lens itself, half encircled as it was, would in due course have fallen at the blast of the Canadian trumpets, had not circumstances at another part of the battle-line called for the presence of recovered. But with the coming of the autumn rains the attack stuck fast. It was highly desirable that the Germans should be ejected from the higher ground about Passchendaele before the arrival of the winter; and for this purpose it was decided to bring in fresher troops. The troops selected were the Canadians; and in October, therefore, the Corps was moved north from Lens to its old fighting-ground in the Ypres salient.

After some preliminary work in improving the advanced communications, in which admirable service was rendered by Canadian labour and pioneer battalions, the Canadians attacked toward the Passchendaele Ridge in conjunction with British troops on October 26. By nightfall the Canadians were in possession of practically all their objectives, and were within striking distance of Passchendaele itself. An attack on October 30 carried them to the outskirts of Passchendaele;

A Canadian 60-pounder in action on a French road; also showing boxes of shells being unloaded from ammunition lorries while the gun hurls its defiant messages into the German lines. (Canadian official photograph.)

the Canadian Corps elsewhere.

In the autumn of 1917 the British had begun a series of operations in the Ypres salient designed to widen the salient and to wrest from the Germans the command of the high ground from which they had for three years made life in the British trenches in that sector a perpetual nightmare. The attack was at first most successful, and the ground lost by the British in the second battle of Ypres was fully

The late Lieut-Col. McCrae, author of "In Flanders Fields," the war poem so widely quoted in recent years.

and on November 6 they captured the village, together with the high ground to the north and north-west of it. A final assault on November 10 placed in their hands the last remaining spurs of the ridge.

The fighting at Passchendaele was of unexampled stubbornness. The German defences were strengthened by numerous concrete "pill-boxes", which were invulnerable except under the heaviest shell-fire. In the attack on Bellevue Spur on October 26, for instance, the troops advancing against these pill-boxes were at times hip-deep in the liquid mud of the battle-field; and so hot was the machine-gun fire from the pill-boxes that it was found necessary to order a temporary retirement, and to reorganize the attack. At every stage of the operations the Germans counter-attacked with the utmost determination; and it was often only by superhuman efforts that the Canadian advance parties were able to hold their ground. The final result, however, was that the Canadians accomplished the task which they set out to accomplish. "For the second time within the year," as Sir Douglas Haig reported, "Canadian troops achieved a record of uninterrupted success."

After the capture of Passchendaele the Canadian Corps returned to the Lens sector, where they spent the winter either in rest or holding the line. No further attempt was made at this juncture to capture Lens, for the collapse of Russia had altered the general situation, and the arrival of German reinforcements from the Eastern front gave the Germans a hold upon Lens which it would have been rash to dispute. The Canadians, moreover, had done their full share of fighting during 1917, and after their strenuous efforts at Passchendaele they required a period for rest and recuperation.

The year 1917 was notable for a significant change in the command of the Canadian Corps. Up to and including the battle of Vimy Ridge the command of the Corps had been in the hands of an Imperial officer. In the summer of 1917, however, Sir Julian Byng was promoted to the command of the Third Army; and the success of the Canadians was recognized by the appointment as Corps Commander of Major-Gen. (now Lieut.-Gen. Sir) A. W. Currie, the commander of the First Division. General Currie was an officer who had risen from the ranks in the Canadian militia, and he was in private life a Vancouver business man interested in real estate and insurance; he therefore fittingly typified the civilian character of Canada's army. Under him the Canadian Corps was to achieve its crowning successes of the year 1918.

The Canadian Corps, 1918

CHAPTER IV

THE CORPS AS SHOCK TROOPS — IN REST — THE GREAT GERMAN OFFENSIVE — CANADIAN RAILWAY TROOPS BEFORE AMIENS — THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE SOMME — THE CANADIAN CORPS BREAKS A RECORD — IT RE-APPEARS BEFORE ARRAS — BREACHING THE DROCOURT-QUEANT SWITCH — CAMBRAI — MONS ONCE MORE — THE CANADIAN CORPS ON GERMAN SOIL.

By 1918 the Canadian Corps had come to be regarded by the Higher Command as shock troops. Specialization in war had reached the point where some troops were trained chiefly for holding the line, and some troops chiefly for assault purposes. The reputation which the Canadians had achieved pointed them out as pre-eminently suited for attack. With a view, therefore, to giving them time for specialized training and to giving them that rest which is essential if the spirit of troops is to be kept at the highest pitch, various divisions of the Canadian Corps were placed in rest for considerable periods of time during the first few months of 1918.

This time was used by Sir Arthur Currie to perfect the Corps as an instrument of offensive warfare. No pains were spared to bring the Corps to a high degree of efficiency in the handling of bayonets and machine guns, in clearing trenches and in cooperating with the tanks and with the artillery. The results of this period of training were fully revealed later.

At the end of March, 1918, the storm of the great German offensive broke along the front occupied by the British Fifth and Third Armies; and in a few days the British were falling back over the old Somme battlefield, and were fighting a desperate action before the very gates of Amiens itself. In stemming the tide of the German advance, the Canadian Cavalry Brigade, which was attached to the British Third Army, played a gallant part; and in the miscellaneous force which was thrown into the breach under General Carey opposite Amiens was an Ontario county battalion, which had been turned into a railway unit. This battalion now took full advantage of the opportunity to exact their revenge for the long months when they had been compelled to build railways under German shell-fire, without the chance of retorting in kind.

But the Canadian Corps took no part in this fighting. Both the great German drive toward Amiens, and the later drive toward the Channel ports in the Armentières sector, left it untouched. The only occasion on which the fighting came near the Canadians was when the Germans attacked opposite Arras, and were held up by the Guards; and on this occasion the Canadians were only on the remote outskirts of the battle. Though doubtless the facts belied the appearance of things, it almost seemed as though the Germans deliberately avoided attacking along the front held by the Canadians.

Throughout the period of the German offensive, however, the Canadian Corps expected daily, indeed almost hourly, to become engaged in the struggle. Under such an expectation, Sir Arthur Currie issued on March 27 a charge to his troops which is worthy of being ranked with Napoleon's famous manifesto to the army of Italy, and which breathed in every line

the spirit that had come to actuate the Canadian Corps. This special order ran in part as follows:

"Looking back with pride on the unbroken record of your glorious achievements, asking you to realise that to-day the fate of the British Empire hangs in the balance, I place my trust in the Canadian Corps, knowing that where Canadians are engaged there can be no giving way.

"Under the orders of your devoted officers in the coming battle you will advance or fall where you stand facing the enemy.

"To those who will fall I say, 'You will not die, but step into immortality. Your mothers will not lament your fate, but will be proud to have borne such sons. Your names will be revered for ever and ever by your grateful country, and God will take you unto Himself.'

"Canadians, in this fateful hour, I command you and I trust you to fight as you have ever fought, with all your strength, with all your determination, with all your tranquil courage. On many a hard-fought field of battle you have overcome this enemy. With God's help you shall achieve victory once more."

It was not until the latter part of the summer, however, that the Canadian Corps was called into action. Then, indeed, they showed that the Corps Commander's confidence in them had not been misplaced. In the meantime the German offensive had failed to obtain decisive results. After striking initial successes it had been held up in turn opposite Amiens, opposite Calais, and along the Marne, where a second battle of critical importance for the future of the world had been fought. Around Rheims a fresh German offensive had been crushed by the invincible troops of France before it developed; and Marshal Foch, now the

Canadian troops resting in a trench on the hard-won Wotan line of the Germans, which was captured on the previous day after a desperate struggle that resulted in the rout of the enemy. (Canadian official photograph.)

Generalissimo of all the allied forces on the Western front, had chosen this psychological moment to launch his long-expected counter-offensive. French and American troops, attacking from Chateau-Thierry to Soissons, along the west side of the salient created by the German drive toward the Marne, had smashed deeply into the new German defences, and had forced the Germans to evacuate a large part of the territory they had overrun a few weeks before. The

Canadians advancing into a wood, past an abandoned German field-gun, on the heels of the Huns' retreat.

threat to Paris having been thus disposed of, Foch now turned his attention to the northern portion of the line; and before the enemy had time to recover his breath, Foch struck at him another body-blow opposite Amiens.

In this fresh counter-offensive, which was under the direction of Sir Douglas Haig, the Canadians and the Australians were given the post of honor as the spear-head of the assault. The attack was launched on August 8 in the sector immediately north of Montdidier. Fresh from their months of training and rest, the Canadians swept over the German defences with irresistible dash. The results obtained were brilliant. The number of prisoners captured by the Canadians actually exceeded the total number of their casualties; a long list of villages fell into their hands; and their advance on August 8 reached at one point a distance of eleven miles—perhaps a record on the western front for an infantry advance during the first day of an attack. The later stages of the offensive were less remarkable, owing to the rapid recovery made by the Germans; but even so the Canadians had penetrated the German lines, before they were relieved, to an average depth of fifteen miles. In the whole operation the Canadian Corps captured over 12,000 prisoners, besides vast numbers of guns of all kinds and huge

Brig.-Gen. V. W. Odlum decorated by H. M. the King with C. B., C. M. G. and D. S. O.

quantities of war material. The effect of the operation was to remove from Amiens and the British lines of communication the threat which had been imminent ever since March, and to reduce the salient created by the German offensive of the early spring. Both in strategic results and in spectacular effect the stroke was the most considerable the Canadians had yet delivered.

The credit for the Canadian success in the second battle of the Somme was due not only to the thoroughness of the staff work, or to the leadership of the regimental officers, but in a very special sense to the individual initiative of the private soldier. Major-Gen. Sir F. Maurice, the military correspondent of the *Daily Chronicle,* who was in France at this time, told, in his impressions of the battle, an anecdote which admirably illustrates the truth of this view. During the later phase of the battle, when hidden and unexpected German machine-gun fire was making the Canadian advance slow and difficult, a certain company of an infantry battalion was resting overnight, preparatory to an attack the following morning. The officers were snatching a few hours of well-earned sleep. A group of N. C. O.'s and men, however, stayed awake to discuss the problem of how best to rush a hostile machine-gun post. Having agreed upon what seemed to them the best procedure, they too turned in to sleep; and the next morning they put their plan into effect with brilliant success. As Sir Frederick Maurice said, such troops were unbeatable.

In the middle of August the Canadians were withdrawn from the Somme sector, and in a few days they reappeared unex-

Brig.-Gen. F. O. W Loomis, C. M. G., D. C. O.

pectedly in a new offensive opposite Arras. The feat of transferring a whole army corps from one sector to another far removed, in the course of little over a week, and amid the confusion of an active battle-front, was one that reflected the utmost credit on the Canadian transport arrangements. Certainly the German intelligence staff must have been surprised when, on August 26, Canadian troops attacked to the south of their old battle-ground at Vimy Ridge, and entered the much-fought-over ruins of Monchy.

At Monchy the main Hindenburg line was breached. The Germans, however, placed their reliance not in the battered defences of this line, but in a reserve system known by them as the Wotan line, and by the British as the Drocourt-Quéant switch. The Drocourt-Quéant switch was the last word in military engineering. Perfected by the Germans during the course of eighteen months, it was a vast system of fortresses, connected by a series of trench lines behind deep belts of thick wire, and by tunnels of the size and depth of the London "tubes". The Germans had reinforced their defences here to such an extent that on a front of 8,000 yards no fewer than eleven divisions were identified. Undeterred, however, by the strength of this defensive organization, the Canadians advanced from Monchy astride the Arras-Cambrai road, and admirably assisted by English troops on their right and left, stormed the German positions on a front of six miles. As Sir Douglas Haig reported, they "carried all before them". They captured no less than ten thousand prisoners, together with numerous guns, machine-guns, and war material of all sorts; and before the day was over they were advancing in the open country beyond the German battle-zone.

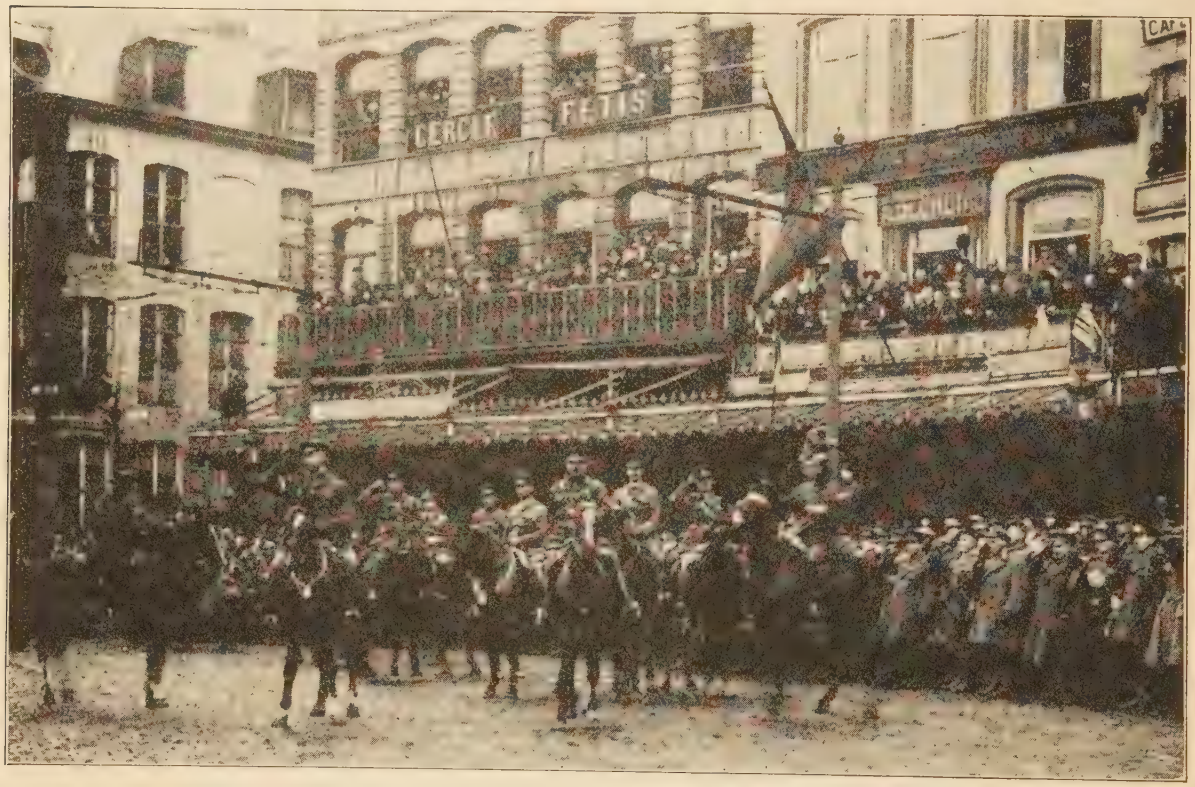
The breaching of the Drocourt-Quéant line must have been a bitter blow for the

A Boche concrete gunpit used by the Canadians. Many of these strongholds were constructed so massively that the enemy could not destroy them even when they retired.

German High Command. Not only did it lay bare the northern portion of their line, but it served notice on them that their most carefully prepared defences were not proof against the skill and valour of the troops of the British Empire. It opened up before them a vista of endless retirements, and quenched their hopes of being able to maintain a stone-wall defence.

Events now began to move more swiftly. In spite of a stubborn rear-guard defence by the Germans, the Canadians advanced steadily on Cambrai. On one or two occasions, as when a smoke barrage under which the Canadians were attacking was blown back by a changing wind, they suffered heavy casualties; and as they approached Cambrai, the fighting reached a pitch of unprecedented ferocity. The enemy fought indeed with the courage of despair. But the Canadians, as well as the British with whom they fought shoulder to shoulder, were not to be gainsaid; and in the darkness of the early morning of October 9, the Canadian advance troops entered Cambrai and Le Cateau, the first British troops to occupy these towns since the "Old Contemptibles" had left them behind in 1914 in the retreat from Mons.

After the fall of Cambrai the Canadians were moved north toward Douai, and commenced an advance in the direction of Valenciennes. After a number of preliminary successes, they captured on October 20 the large mining town of Denain; and on November 1 the Fourth Division, in conjunction with British troops, stormed Valenciennes. In commemoration of this event, the grateful people of Valenciennes, with Gallic politeness, have renamed their Place d'Armes Place du Canada. From Valenciennes onward the march of the Canadian Corps was a triumphal progress. In



General Sir Arthur Currie, commanding the Canadian Corps, entering Mons on the morning the armistice was signed. The town had been occupied by the Germans for four years. The general is in the left foreground, returning the salutes of the overjoyed populace. (Canadian official photograph, from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.)

Lt.-Col. (now Brig. Gen.) W. A. Griesbach (on right), who commanded the 49th Battalion (Edmonton).

nine days the Corps advanced fully thirty miles. On November 7 the Belgian border was crossed; and at 4 o'clock in the morning of November 11, just before the armistice which ended the Great War came into effect, the Princess Pats, the 42nd Battalion, and a few men of the Royal Canadian Regiment entered the city of Mons. The wheel had come full circle. British troops were back in the position they had left nearly four and a half years before; and the world had been given a wonderful demonstration of the ability of the Anglo-Saxon race to "come back".

The capture of Mons was not without its dramatic features. The last troops to leave Mons on August 23, 1914, had been the 42nd Highlanders, the famous Black Watch; the first troops to enter Mons on November 11, 1918, were the 42nd Royal Highlanders of Canada, who were affiliated, through the parent regiment, the 5th Royal Highlanders of Montreal, with the Black Watch. The bodyguard of Sir Arthur Currie, when he made a triumphal entry into Mons on the afternoon of November 11, was a section of the 5th Lancers, troopers of the old army who all wore the Mons ribbon. To the city of Mons Sir Arthur Currie presented a Canadian flag tied to a lance; and this flag now reposes in a conspicuous place in the council chamber of the City Hall.

In June, 1918, Sir Arthur Currie had made the statement that "the spirit of the Canadian soldiers is such that there is no position they are asked to take which they will not take". The remark may have appeared to some to smack of braggadocio; but the event has shown it to be a sober statement of fact. The record of the Canadian Corps between August 8

Gunners of a Canadian 9.2 Howitzer having their midday meal.

and November 11, 1918, was one of unbroken and spectacular success. During this time they engaged and defeated no less than fifty-seven German divisions; they captured a grand total of nearly 35,000 prisoners, with 750 guns of all calibres, 3,500 machine-guns, and other war material too vast to reckon; they advanced in depth over 100 miles, captured over 150 cities, towns, and villages, and released over 300,000 French and Belgian civilians from the domination of the Hun. And in doing this they did not have to admit a single failure.

The Canadian people may well be proud of the achievements of their citizen army. In the Great War the Canadian Corps proved itself to be the equal of the best troops of the British or French armies. To say more than this would be to state the impossible. Many a British and French unit had a record no less brilliant and glorious than that of the Canadians; and if little stress has been laid here on this fact, it is merely because the object of this sketch has been to follow the adventures of the Canadians alone.

With the signing of the armistice, the fighting was over. The terms of the armistice called, however, for the occupation by the allies of the left bank of the Rhine, as well as very large bridge-heads on the right bank; and the Canadian Corps was chosen as part of the army of occupation. From Mons it advanced through Belgium, and into Germany. Corps headquarters was established at the German University centre of Bonn; and the end of the year 1918 found the Canadians keeping their watch on the Rhine.

Canadian officers inspecting a depot of hundreds of machine guns and rapid-firers captured from the enemy in the final engagements of the war.

The Canadian Cavalry

CHAPTER V

THE WORK OF THE CANADIAN CAVALRY — THE CANADIAN MOUNTED RIFLES — THE ROYAL CANADIAN DRAGOONS AND THE STRATHCONA HORSE — CAVALRYMEN IN THE TRENCHES — THE MOUNTED RIFLES TURNED INTO INFANTRY — THE CANADIAN CAVALRY BRIGADE — STANDING BY — THE DASH AT CAMBRAI — BEFORE AMIENS — THE GREAT OFFENSIVE — CANADIAN TROOPERS RIDE INTO GERMANY.

Little has been known in Canada about the work of the Canadian Cavalry. This has been largely due to the fact that the cavalry have been a comparatively small body of troops, only occasionally called into action; and their achievements have been overshadowed by those of the Canadian Corps. The fact, too, that, except at one or two short periods, the cavalry have acted separately from the Corps—they have belonged indeed to a separate British Army—has tempted people to forget about them. Yet the story of the Canadian cavalry contains passages as thrilling as any chapter of the war; and the Canadian Cavalry Brigade has contributed no less than the Canadian Corps, to make the name of Canada respected on the battlefield.

When the war broke out, it was expected that cavalry would play an important part in the struggle. It was not foreseen that the evolution of trench warfare, the reign of the machine gun, and the development of aircraft would seriously diminish the sphere of usefulness of mounted troops. Canadian mounted troops had played a distinguished part in the South African War; and at an early date the Canadian government made arrangements to send similar troops to France. The usual quota of cavalry went with the First Contingent; and in the Second Contingent there were included a number of regiments of Canadian Mounted Rifles—a cross between cavalry and infantry. During 1915, too, the Royal Canadian Dragoons and the Strathcona Horse, two cavalry regiments belonging to Canada's permanent force, were sent overseas. These troops were all horsemen born and bred, such as Canada was well able to supply. On arrival in France, all these units were placed, together with the Royal Canadian Horse Artillery and some British cavalry regiments, under the command of Brig.-Gen. Seely, once the Minister of War in the Asquith government; and they formed an independent cavalry force, ready to be used when the opportunity should arise.

By 1915 the struggle on the Western front had settled down to stationary warfare; and the opportunity to use cavalry on the battlefield did not come until two or three years later, with the gradual return of a more open style of fighting. In the meantime, so great was the need for men on the British front, owing to the fact that the new British armies were not yet ready to be placed in the field, that it was found necessary to employ General Seely's force in the trenches. During many months of 1915 the Canadian troopers did duty as dismounted troops in the front line. The arrangement was naturally not an ideal one. The cavalrymen, with their carbines and riding-breeches, were ill-equipped for trench warfare; and their training had not been along the lines required for infantry work. Nevertheless, they gave from the

first a good account of themselves. At Festubert, where the Royal Canadian Dragoons and Strathcona's Horse were first engaged, Canadian cavalrymen did deeds of prowess no less remarkable than those already wrought by the Canadian infantry. If no Victoria Crosses were won, it was not because no one deserved the honour. An incident illustrative of many similar deeds that are unrecorded, was the performance of Corporal Pym of the Royal Canadian Dragoons. Hearing cries for help from No Man's Land, which was at this place only sixty yards wide, Corporal Pym went out twice, in broad daylight, and under a withering machine-gun and rifle fire, and brought in a severely wounded man who had been lying in the open for three days. Sergeant Hollowell of the R. C. D.'s, who went to his assistance, was shot down at his side. Deeds such as this, performed by troops during their first tour in the trenches, speak volumes for their dash and gallantry.

As the year 1915 wore on, it became apparent that there was in the immediate future little likelihood of an opportunity arising for the use of such a cavalry force as had been gathered under General Seely's command. The Canadian authorities, moreover, were at this time endeavouring to collect a third division. It was therefore decided to break up General Seely's command, and to convert the six regiments of Canadian Mounted Rifles which had formed part of his force into four battalions of infantry. These four battalions, which were known as the 1st, 2nd, 4th, and 5th Canadian Mounted Rifles, formed the Eighth Brigade of the Third Division; and as such they played a distinguished part in the history of the Canadian Corps. But their reinforcements were drawn mainly from infantry depots, and they soon lost the character of

Canadian soldier examining the rifle and kit of a German killed by Canadian cavalry a few minutes before, while protecting the rear of the German retreat. (Canadian official photgraph.)

mounted rifles in everything but name.

The fate of the Canadian Mounted Rifles, however, did not overtake the Royal Canadian Dragoons and Strathcona's Horse. These units remained cavalry regiments; and when the Fort Garry Horse arrived in France in February, 1916, the three units were formed into the Canadian Cavalry Brigade—a force quite distinct from the Canadian Corps, and found only on rare occasions acting in conjunction with it.

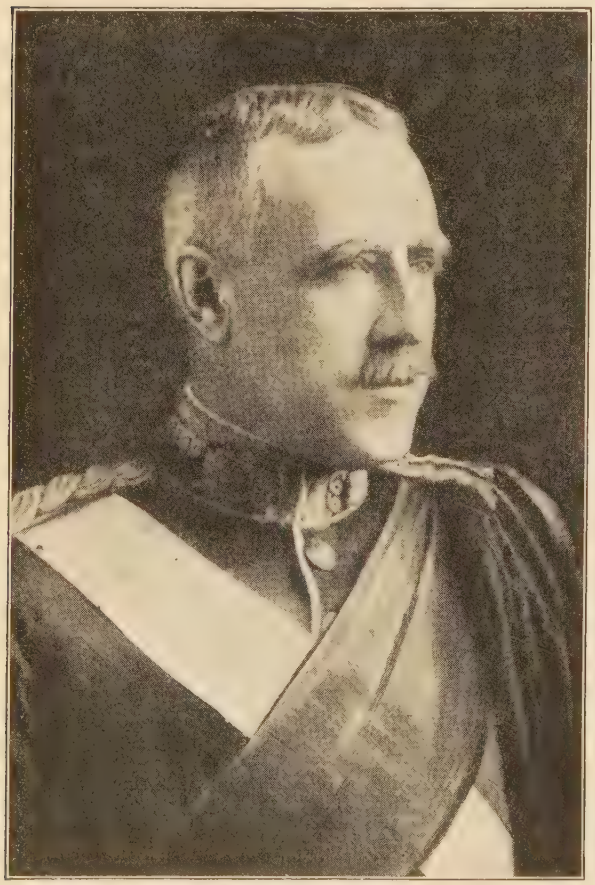
The year 1916 was a period of comparative inaction for the Canadian Cavalry Brigade. The bitter trench battles of this year gave no scope for cavalry operations; and there seemed to be grave danger that the once proud squadrons of the Canadian cavalry would degenerate into works companies. Many cavalry officers, despairing of seeing service again in the front line, transferred to the infantry or the artillery. But toward the end of the year the hopes of the cavalry brightened. During the long and bitter struggle on the Somme in the autumn of 1916 there seemed on several occasions to be a prospect that, if things went well, the cavalry might get orders to ride forward. During several attacks the horses were kept bitted and bridled, ready to advance at a moment's notice. The move orders never came; but there was always the chance that there might be better luck next time. And it became clear, as the year closed, that the Higher Command was looking forward in the near future to a much greater need for mounted troops. Transfers from the cavalry to other branches of the service were stopped; and the Canadian Cavalry Depot at Shorncliffe, in England, was enlarged into a Canadian Cavalry Reserve Brigade, in which each of the regiments at the front had a reserve regiment to supply it with reinforcements.

In the great French offensive in Champagne in the spring of 1917 cavalry was used, though only with indifferent success; but it was not until very near the end of the year that the Canadian Cavalry Brigade had the chance for which they had been waiting so long and so patiently. On November 20, 1917, Sir Julian Byng, now in command of the Third Army, launched in the direction of Cambrai a surprise attack which promised at first to be one of the most successful and brilliant operations on the Western front. The troops which he had at his command were limited in number, owing to the demands recently made on the British for reinforcements for the Italian front; but he planned to make up for this deficiency by the use of a large force of tanks, and he had in reserve a powerful body of British and French cavalry with which to drive the attack home. The honour of constituting the spear-head of this cavalry mass went to the Canadian Cavalry Brigade. The attack of the infantry and the tanks proved brilliantly successful. The Germans,

General Watson.

taken by surprise, were completely overwhelmed; and the road to Cambrai was laid open. At this juncture the cavalry advanced, the Canadians leading. All seemed propitious. The spires of Cambrai could be seen gleaming ahead, and nothing appeared to intervene. Then occurred one of those mischances so common in war. An important bridge over the Canal du Nord was found to have been broken down by a British tank which had attempted to cross it. A report to this effect was sent back to cavalry headquarters; and in consequence orders came forward countermanding the whole advance.

But before these orders reached the Canadians, a squadron of the Fort Garry Horse had crossed the canal in single file, and had dashed forward into the enemy country. The adventures of this squadron of the Fort Garrys read like a chapter from a boy's book of wonders. They charged a battery of German guns, and cut down all the gunners; they scattered some stray German infantry detachments like sheep; and they swept almost to the gates of Cambrai itself. There they discarded their horses, and fought their way back on foot to the British lines a good two miles away. Of the whole squadron only forty-three returned, and the officer who led them back was awarded the Victoria Cross. The charge of the Fort Garrys at Cambrai left no doubt in the minds of those who read about it as to what the Canadian Cavalry could do, if once they got half a chance.



Brig.-Gen. G. E. McQuaig.

There were those among the officers of the Canadian Cavalry Brigade who held that if the cavalry advance had not been countermanded, they would have swept all before them, and brought about the fall of Cambrai and perhaps even more far-reaching results. It was natural that the brigade should have felt aggrieved at being cheated of what seemed to be their one great opportunity of the war. But the success with which the Germans reacted a few days later against the new British line, retrieving a large part of the ground they had lost, suggests that possibly the Higher Command was in receipt of other and more important information than that of the breaking down of a bridge when they decided to hold up the cavalry attack.

In any case, the brigade did not have many months to wait before they saw action again—the action beside which the fighting at Cambrai was child's play. The great German offensive of March,

1918, broke on the British Third and Fifth Armies. The Canadian Cavalry Brigade was part of the Third Army. It did not indeed have to bear the brunt of the initial attack, for that fell on the infantry. But as the wave of the German advance neared Amiens, it became necessary to throw into the line every available unit; and the Canadian cavalry was thrown in with the rest. Fighting now as mounted troops, now as dismounted, counter-attacking in the face of machine-gun fire at one time, fighting a stubborn rearguard action at another, they played their part in stemming the tide of the German rush. Their casualties alone testified to the character of their work; these were comparable only with the losses of the First Division at the Second Battle of Ypres.

Sketch of Brig.-Gen. G. S. Tuxford, who commanded the 3rd Brigade.

In the later stages of the fighting in 1918 the Canadian Cavalry Brigade played a somewhat subsidiary part. During the British advance they were always booted and spurred, ready to dash in when the opportunity offered; but the stubborn character of the fighting did not favour the intervention of mounted troops. On the rare occasions when they did appear in the forward area, they were soon withdrawn.

Men of the Newfoundland Regiment who saved Monchy at a critical moment.

But after the signing of the armistice between Germany and the Allies on November 11, the cavalry came once more to the fore. In the occupation of Belgium and the Rhine valley, the cavalry screen led the way. Canadian troopers, together with British troopers, rode into the villages of Belgium as the German Uhlans had ridden into them over four years before, but on a different mission and in a different mood. And before the year was out, the inhabitants of sleepy German villages in the Rhineland, peeping out through their windows, saw Canadian cavalry patrols riding through the village street. It is a far cry from the Red River to the Rhine; but many a lad who left the banks of the one in 1914 reached the banks of the other in 1918.

ITALY
AND SAN MARINO
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100
GULF OF NAPLES
SCALE OF MILES
GULF OF SALERNO
SWITZERLAND
HUNGARY
BOSNIA
HERZEGOVINA
ADRIATIC SEA
LIGURIAN SEA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
SICILIAN N SEA
Malta Channel
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
TUSCANY
ROME
NAPLES
BASILICATA
MOLISE
ABRUZZO AND
APULIA
CALABRIA
LIPARI ISLANDS
MALTESE ISLANDS
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Spezia
Gulf of Porto
Gulf of Ajaccio
Gulf of Sagona
Gulf of Orosei
Gulf of Oristano
Gulf of Palmas
Gulf of Cagliari
Gulf of Tunis
Gulf of Hammamet
Strait of Bonifacio
Strait of Messina
Strait of Otranto
Mouths of the Po
Lake of Geneva
L. of Lucerne
Mt. Blanc
Monte Rosa
Mt. Cenis
Mt. Vesuvius
Mt. Etna
Pompeii
Tunis
Bona
Souk Ahras
Hammamet
Genoa
Turin
Milan
Venice
Florence
Naples
Rome
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Syracuse
Trapani
Marsala
Mazzara
Girgenti
Licata
Modica
Avola
Augusta
Trieste
Fiume
Zara
Spalato
Ragusa
Seravejo
Cattaro
Ancona
Pescara
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
Reggio
Messina
Catanzaro
Cosenza
Potenza
Foggia
Benevento
Capua
Gaeta
Leghorn
Pisa
Lucca
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Ravenna
Rimini
Pesaro
Ancona
Perugia
Arezzo
Siena
Grosseto
Civita Vecchia
Leghorn
Elba
Capraja I.
Gorgona I.
Pianosa I.
Giglio I.
Giannutri I.
Ponza Is.
Ventotene I.
Ischia
Capri
Procida
Sorrento
Amalfi
Salerno
Paestum
Pantellaria I.
Linosa I.
Gozo
Malta
Corfu
Cephalonia
Zante
Santa Maura
Ithaca
Lissa
Curzola
Meleda
Pelagosa
Lesina
Solta
Incoronata I.
Premuda
Melada
Lussin
Cherso
Unie
Pago
Arbe
Veglia
Fiume
Trieste
Gorizia
Udine
Belluno
Treviso
Vicenza
Verona
Padua
Mantua
Brescia
Bergamo
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Alessandria
Novara
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Piacenza
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Chioggia
Rovigo
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Legnago
Peschiera
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Sirmio
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The Work of the Auxiliary Services

CHAPTER VI

THE CANADIAN ARMY MEDICAL CORPS — ITS ORGANIZATION AND WORK — A CANADIAN HOSPITAL AT SALONIKA — THE DENTAL CORPS — THE RAILWAY TROOPS — THE FORESTRY CORPS — THE SALVAGE CORPS — THE Y. M. C. A. — THE KHAKI UNIVERSITY — THE WAR RECORDS.

In every army there are a host of auxiliary services which contribute, in a great variety of ways, to the upkeep and welfare of the fighting troops. It has been estimated that, in modern warfare, four men are required behind the lines to keep one man in the firing line. No account of Canada's military effort, therefore, would be complete which ignored the work of these auxiliary troops, without which, indeed, the achievements of the fighting men would have been impossible.

Foremost among these subsidiary services is the Medical Corps. The work of the Medical Corps pervades the whole of army life. It meets the soldier on enlistment; it meets him again on discharge; and it watches over him during the interval. Its work is not only with the sick and the wounded; it lies even more with the well and strong. Sanitation, vaccination and inoculation, quarantine—such preventive measures as these fall within its scope just as much as war surgery and the sick parade.

Its detachments are to be found all the way from the front line back to Canada. At the front, with the infantry battalion or the artillery brigade, there is the medical officer, with his orderlies and stretcher-bearers. Just behind the line is the dressing-station and the field ambulance. At railhead there is generally found a casualty clearing station, where preliminary operations are as a rule performed. Behind that, on the coast of France or in England, are the great base hospitals and general hospitals, where the patient receives final treatment. In England, the Canadian Army Medical Corps has also some excellent special hospitals, such as the Westcliffe Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Hospital, the only military hospital of its kind in England. Finally, in Canada there are hospitals equipped for dealing with the soldier who is permanently unfit for active service, but who must be made fit, so far as is possible, to resume civilian life.

The Canadian Army Medical Corps did not, however, minister to Canadians alone. Many Imperial soldiers were looked after in Canadian hospitals; and a number of Canadian medical units, notably casualty clearing stations, were situated in areas where Canadian troops were rarely found. One Canadian general hospital, that furnished by the University of Toronto, was for two years at Salonika, on the shores of the Aegean Sea.

The story of the work of the Canadian Army Medical Corps is marked by incidents of heroism and devotion to duty no less splendid than those which have marked the work of any other branch of the service. One of the first Victoria Crosses won by a Canadian in the war was won by Captain Scrimger, the medical officer of the 14th Battalion at the Second Battle of Ypres. The work done by the doctors at the advanced dressing stations, often under the heaviest shell-fire, and by the surgeons at the casualty clearing stations, where operations had to

be performed often under a joint bombardment from the land and the air, was work for which no tribute could be too great. And as for the heroism of the nursing sisters, no words are adequate to describe it. Under air-raids by brutal German flying men by night and by day they went about their duties in the wards with a tranquil courage which put to shame the trepidation of many a hardened soldier. In an air-raid on a Canadian general hospital at Etaples in the spring of 1918, some of the nursing sisters made the supreme sacrifice, and others were maimed for life. Nor did the dastardly German torpedo spare Canadian nurses on the high seas. In the sinking of the Canadian hospital ship *Llandovery Castle* in the summer of 1918, a number of these devoted women went down to a watery, but glorious, grave.

Beside the Canadian Army Medical Corps, there was another branch of the army which presided over the health of the soldiers—the Canadian Dental Corps. When the war broke out, little provision was made for the care of the teeth of the Canadian soldier; but as hostilities dragged on, it became apparent that, if the Canadian forces were to be kept in a state of efficiency, the teeth of the army must be better attended to. A large number of dental officers was therefore recruited; and before long each infantry and cavalry brigade, each large medical unit, and numerous other formations, had a dental laboratory, with a full working equipment. The number of patients who passed through these laboratories or clinics, literally hundreds at a time, amply demonstrated the need which the Canadian Dental Corps filled.

Canadian and Imperial troops helping themselves to free coffee supplied by the Canadian Y. M. C. A. at a roadside stand made of biscuit boxes. The Helpful work of the "Y" was highly appreciated by the troops in France and Flanders. (Canadian official photograph.)

An interesting auxiliary service of the Canadian army during the later stages of the war was the Canadian Railway Troops. Modern warfare has become to a remarkable degree a matter of railway strategy. The superiority of the German railway communications forced on the British authorities at an early date the necessity of improving the railway situation in the north of France, which was quite inadequate to cope with the problem of supplying and moving the vast masses of troops concentrated in that narrow triangle of territory. In addition to this there was need of trained technical troops to build the light railways which were found to be the best means of carrying supplies up to the front line. The assistance of the Canadian government was requested by the British in meeting this problem; and as a result the Canadian Railway Troops came into existence. Not only were a number of infantry battalions turned into railway construction units, but railway men were recruited in Canada specifically for railway operation, and rolling stock and rails were sent overseas as well. Nearly 500 miles of Canadian rails were torn up and shipped direct to France; and it was not an uncommon occurrence for Canadian soldiers coming back to railhead to go on leave to meet a C. P. R. locomotive, manned by a C. P. R. crew. The work of the railway troops, both those who built and those who operated the roads, was at times extremely hazardous. Especially during an advance, when they had to push the railways on after the troops as quickly as possible, they came often under the severest shell-fire, without any means of retaliating on the enemy. So successful was their work that they were in demand in other theatres of war besides the Western front; and Canadian railway troops actually played a part in the advance of the British in Palestine, and in the capture of the Holy Places at Jerusalem.

Another novel Canadian service which played a crucial part in the war was the Canadian Forestry Corps. Before 1914 few people thought of lumbering as an essential feature of modern warfare; but the dawn of trench fighting soon brought home to the authorities the necessity of an extensive forestry program. Lumber was needed for the construction of dug-outs, for the making of the trench-mats without which life in the trenches became a slough of despond, and for the manufacture of railway ties. In addition, it was required for the building of the multitude of huts that sprang up behind the lines and in the reserve camps—hospitals, aerodromes, Y. M. C. A. canteens, offices, store-rooms, rest-huts, bath-houses. The problem of coping with this unprecedented demand for lumber was indeed a serious one. War conditions had cut off a large part of even the normal lumber supply of France and Great Britain; and it became necessary to make inroads on the wonderful timber resources of the ancient parks and forests of these countries.

It was known that there were in the Canadian army thousands of lumbermen; and Canada was asked to furnish troops to carry out lumbering and milling operations. A number of later battalions, recruited almost wholly in lumbering districts, were selected, and these were formed into the Canadian Forestry Corps. Detachments of the corps commenced operations in the south of France, in England, and in the north of Scotland. One detachment set to work in the royal park of Windsor; and age-old trees, beneath which the kings and queens of England had walked or hunted, resounded under the axes of Canadian lumberjacks. The work of the Forestry Corps did not perhaps lend itself to deeds of daring and renown; but there is no doubt that the steady stroke of its axes and the humdrum buzz of its saw-mills contributed in real measure to the winning of the war.

Another interesting unit was the Salvage Corps. This too was a development of the later stages of the war. In the earlier stages little attention was paid to the conservation of materials. Every battle-

field was a litter of discarded rifles, equipment, gun-carriages, and what not. As materials ran short, however, the Salvage Corps was formed. Its personnel was composed entirely of men who were unfit to carry on in the front line; but with a thoroughness which was an example to the fighting troops the Corps ranged over the whole battlefront, collecting every scrap of material which could be in any way turned to use. Their dumps would have been the envy of the rags-bones-and-bottles men of civilian life; and the amount of money they saved the people of Canada can only be reckoned in terms of millions of dollars.

A branch of the army which should not be forgotten is the military department of the Canadian Y. M. C. A. In the British and American armies, the Y. M. C. A. is merely a civilian adjunct to the military forces; but with the Canadians the Y. M. C. A. is part of the army itself. The Y. M. C. A. officers hold honorary commissions, and are under army discipline; consequently the cooperation between the Y. M. C. A. and the combatant forces is closer than would perhaps otherwise be the case. For the work of the Canadian Y. M. C. A. in the war no praise can be too high. Its huts were to be found in every training camp, in every base camp, and in every forward area where Canadian troops were quartered; and these huts, with their warm fires, their tables and writing materials, their papers and magazines, their canteens and their indoor games, were often the one bright spot in the life of the men. In every advance the Y. M. C. A. officers were well forward, handing out hot coffee and milk chocolate to the walking wounded; and not infrequently they were found in the front line on their errands of kindliness. When the men were in rest in the back areas, they were indefatigable in organizing games of sport for them—games which proved so beneficial in their results that the idea was taken up by the General Staff, and became part of the recognized system of training in the Canadian army. Concert parties, composed often of famous artists, were brought out to the front; and Canadian soldiers just out of the line were often able to enjoy entertainments in the Y. M. C. A. huts no worse, and sometimes better, than they could have seen in the music-halls of London. And wherever they were, the Y. M. C. A. officers admirably seconded the work of the Chaplains' Service in looking after the spiritual welfare of the men. Taken all in all, there were few branches of the army that stood the test of the Great War better than the Canadian Y. M. C. A.

Connected with the Y. M. C. A., and yet distinct from it, was the Khaki University of Canada—or, to give it its full official designation, the Educational Service of the Overseas Military Forces of Canada. The Canadians were pioneers in several different lines during the war, but in nothing more pronouncedly than in their attempt, during the actual progress of hostilities, to give to the citizen soldier a training, if he desired it, in the arts and sciences of peace. The Khaki University came into existence in the camp where the ill-fated Fifth Canadian Division was waiting for orders to go to France—orders which never came. The idea became immediately popular; and soon teaching centres had been established in practically all the Canadian centres in England, and the "University of Vimy Ridge" had been organized in France. In the Khaki University everything was taught for which a class and a teacher could be found, from Greek prose to commercial arithmetic. In France the difficulties to be overcome were great. The task of teaching, let us say, the Spanish verb to a class of weary soldiers in a leaky tent within sound of the German guns, was one to try the patience of a more patient man than Job. But the Khaki University filled a much-felt need. Especially when demobilization began, it offered to the Canadian soldier a chance to refit himself for picking up again the threads of civilian life on his return to Canada.

Last of all, a word should be said about the work of the Canadian War Records Office. This office sprang out of the appointment of Sir Max Aitken (now Lord Beaverbrook) as the Canadian official eye-witness at the front. It was organized by him for the purpose of collecting and preserving all possible information regarding the part played by Canada's troops in the Great War. Officers were sent to the front to take down from the lips of survivors the story of every engagement in which Canadian troops took part; war diaries, operation orders, aeroplane photographs, trench maps, were collected; and artists of international fame were sent out to make sketches and paintings. Movie films were even taken of the troops in action. The result is that Canada has to-day a collection of original materials relating to the part played by her troops in the war that is not inferior to that of any other country on either side. The first-fruits of this collection are to be seen in the first three volumes of the official record known as *Canada in Flanders*—a record that is unique at least in this, that no other country but Canada has attempted, while the fighting was still in progress, to issue an authorized narrative of the battles in which its troops have been engaged. The importance of propaganda in the war is something which can hardly be overestimated; and there was no form of propaganda which could have been more effective than the plain unvarnished story of what Canada's soldiers did and suffered.

Wounded Canadians being carried to the rear by German prisoners taken in the pursuit of the retreating Boche army in the fall of 1918. (Canadian official photograph.)

KIEL CANAL TO ALLIES
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
GERMANY
POLAND
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
BELGIUM
HOLLAND
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
LUXEMBURG
Germany - Poland
Schleswig-Holstein
Wurttemberg
Bavaria - Saxony
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100
Longitude 12° East 14° from 16° Greenwich 18°

The Storv of The Reinforcements

CHAPTER VII

THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD CONTINGENTS — LATER UNITS — THE COUNTY BATTALIONS — FANCY FORMATIONS — THE SITUATION IN QUEBEC — THE VOLUNTEER SYSTEM FAILS — THE FIFTH DIVISION — THE MILITARY SERVICE ACT — THE DRAFTEES — CANADA'S ACHIEVEMENT.

When the fighting ended on the Western front in November, 1918, the Canadian Corps was practically the only large formation in the British army which was still at full strength. The Canadian casualties had not been less than those of most other troops; but the supply of reinforcements had been constantly kept up. What this had meant to the Corps, in maintaining its morale and efficiency, may well be imagined. The encouragement of full ranks no doubt had much to do with the success which attended the Corps in all that it undertook; and from this point of view alone, the story of how Canada kept up her reinforcements is worth while telling.

When the First Contingent was called for, the difficulty was not to get recruits, but to weed out those that offered. Thousands were rejected all over Canada for slight physical defects; and in the end there sailed from Canada, not 20,000, the number originally aimed at, but 33,000. Nor was there any difficulty in filling the ranks of the Second and Third Contingents. Many of the units in these contingents were recruited in a day. It seemed as though Canada's military resources were inexhaustible.

But by the middle of 1915, however, enlistments had begun to thin out. The units that were authorized immediately after what was known as the Third Contingent was raised, all reached full strength; but in some cases recruiting to full strength was a struggle. Battalions were no longer raised in a day, nor yet in a week. To get recruits it became necessary to appeal for them, in the press, on the platform, and in the street. A recruiting campaign, it was found, cost money; and it became necessary too for battalions to solicit financial support from the public.

It was at this juncture that the demand was first heard for compulsory military service, or conscription. Among the recruits who were coming forward were many married men with families, who were certain to cost the country heavily in separation allowances, patriotic fund grants, and pensions; whereas many unmarried men were holding back from enlisting. If only from the standpoint of finance, it was contended that a system of recruiting which gave rise to such a condition of affairs was wrong; and it was urged that the state itself should say who should go. In the opinion of the government, however, the country was not ripe for conscription; and the Militia Department continued to try to secure recruits by means of the voluntary system.

With a view to galvanizing the voluntary system into renewed life, the Militia Department hit upon the device of trying to raise county battalions by appealing to the local patriotism of the countryside. County and municipal councils made grants for the purpose of aiding recruiting; and recruiting officers scoured the country in every direction. The results obtained were hardly commensurate with the efforts put forth. Many battalions found that the cost of recruiting a single

soldier ranged anywhere from $10 to $50. So great was the anxiety of commanding officers to fill up their battalions that many men were enlisted who were totally unfit for active service, and who had to be discharged later, after having cost the government large sums of money for their upkeep and training. And in the end the great majority of these county battalions went overseas far below strength. The process of their recruitment was one of the most expensive and extravagant which could well be imagined.

Canadians using a British tank for transport purposes. The tanks fully proved their value as adjuncts to infantry soon after their first appearance on the Somme in 1916, where they spread terror among the Germans. (Canadian official photograph.)

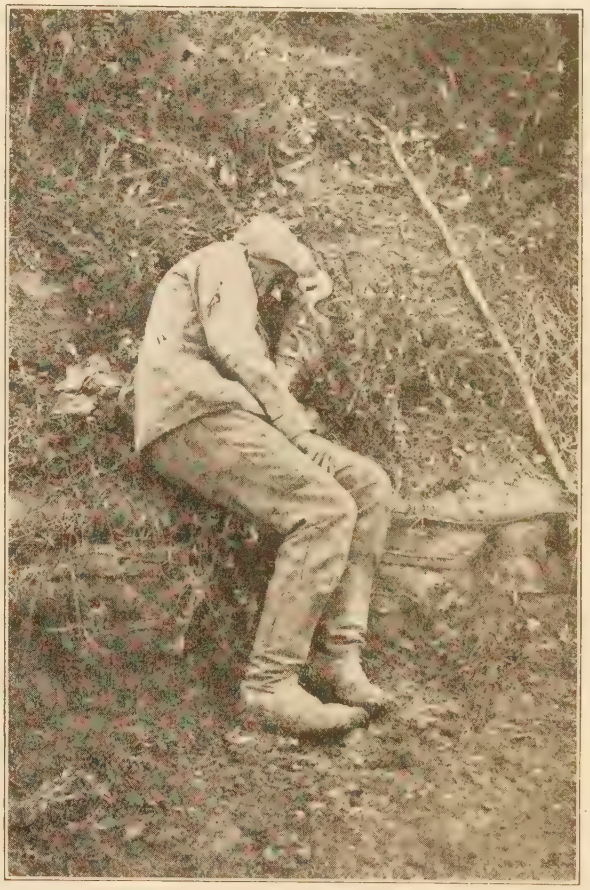
At the same time other expedients were resorted to. Highland battalions were raised in Scottish districts, Irish-Canadian battalions in Irish districts. University battalions were authorized in university centres; and an attempt was even made to recruit a battalion of High School boys. A sportsmen's battalion was raised, a bantams' battalion, and a pals' battalion. Certain units made a specialty of recruiting companies of bank clerks, of North American Indians, or of Russians. Every inducement was held out to get men to enlist together. The idea underlying the formation of all these units was that men of the same type would be able to go to the front together —an idea which the authorities must have known was impossible of fulfilment. With rare exceptions, these units were later broken up on arrival in England, and the men composing them scattered as reinforcements.

The recruiting problem among the French Canadians of the province of Quebec was especially difficult. A section of the French-Canadian people, led by the Nationalist leaders, Bourassa and Lavergne, were definitely opposed to the

participation of Canada in the war; and in spite of the efforts of the more patriotic among the French Canadians, such as Captain Talbot Papineau, the grandson of the rebel of 1837, who had been one of the original officers of the Princess Pats, and who later died on the battlefield, the number of French-Canadian recruits that offered was small indeed. Out of five French-Canadian units authorized at this time only two partially filled battalions were obtained. It was perhaps unnatural to expect from the province of Quebec the same number of recruits as from Ontario or from the West, since the French Canadians had never been educated up to their Imperial responsibilities, and the custom of early marriages and large families among them had reduced the number of eligible young men; but even when allowance was made for these facts, the response from the province of Quebec was disappointing.

By the beginning of 1917 enlistments in Canada had fallen off until they were far exceeded by the casualties at the front. It became clear that Canada's military effort was waning rather than waxing. In 1916 Great Britain had been forced to discard the voluntary system of recruiting for a system of conscription or compulsion; and the United States, upon its entrance into the war in the early part of 1917, had immediately adopted the principle of a selective draft. New Zealand had reverted to compulsion; and, although Australia had rejected conscription, it had placed in the field five divisions as against Canada's four divisions, despite the fact that its population was less than that of Canada. Under these circumstances, the demand in Canada for a system of compulsory military service increased in strength and insistence; and during 1917 Sir Robert Borden and the leading members of his Cabinet gradually came to the conclusion that the voluntary system had failed, and that the principle of compulsion would have to be adopted.

A striking commentary on the failure of the voluntary system was afforded by



German prisoner, badly wounded in the head, waiting for stretcher-bearers to carry him to the Canadian rear. (Canadian official photograph.)

the fate of the Fifth Canadian Division. This division had been organized at Witley Camp in England in the beginning of 1917, as the result of a natural desire on the part of the Canadian authorities not to be outdone by the Australians. Throughout the year the division waited patiently for orders to proceed to France —and waited in vain. Especially after the adoption of the principle of compulsion by the Canadian government in the summer of 1917 their hopes rose high. But by the end of 1917 the immediate need for reinforcements at the front was such that it was found necessary to break up the division, and send it to the front in drafts. After nearly a year of forced inaction and deferred hopes, the Fifth Division passed out of existence.

Sir Robert Borden introduced the Military Service Act into parliament on June

11, 1917, and in spite of opposition from a wing of the Liberal party, it passed both houses by substantial majorities. Later in the year, when the coalition formed between the Conservatives and the conscriptionist wing of the Liberal party went to the polls, the Act was emphatically endorsed by the electors, outside of the province of Quebec. In operation the Act was not an unqualified success. It yielded at first a disappointing number of recruits; and in some parts of the country, notably in the province of Quebec, the exemptions granted were out of all proportion to those granted in parts of the country which had already done their full share in the war. But the Act served the purpose of keeping up a sufficient flow of reinforcements for the troops already at the front; and from that point of view it was amply justified. The draftees called up under it proved to be a fine upstanding class of men, for the most part amenable to discipline and training. During 1918 tens of thousands of them went to France as reinforcements; and the part they played in the final successes of the Canadian Corps showed them to be capable of achieving results scarcely less splendid than the volunteers who had preceded them.

The total number of enlistments in Canada during the Great War was well over 550,000, or about one in twelve of the population. Of these over 100,000 were obtained under the Military Service Act. The total number who proceeded overseas was well over 400,000. This effort pales into insignificance beside the war effort of Great Britain or France; and it is inferior to the effort made by Australia and New Zealand. But in comparison with the record of the United States, it is at least creditable, especially when the large proportion of French Canadians in Canada is taken into account. And although the Canadian soldiers enlisted in the war may not have been as many as they might have been, they were all of the best stamp; and if Canada's contribution to the war was a little deficient in quantity, it was not deficient in quality.

Canadians In The Imperial Forces

CHAPTER VIII

SCARCITY OF OFFICERS IN THE BRITISH ARMY — CANADIANS TAKE OUT COMMISSIONS — CANADIANS IN THE ROYAL AIR FORCE — CANADIAN ACES — CANADIANS SECONDED TO THE IMPERIALS — ON THE LINE OF COMMUNICATIONS — SPECIAL POSITIONS — THE NEWFOUNDLAND REGIMENT — CANADIANS IN THE BRITISH NAVY.

Canada's war effort has not been limited to the troops that wear the maple leaf badge. She has contributed in addition thousands of the best and bravest of her sons to the military, naval, and air forces of Great Britain. Complete figures with regard to Canadian enlistments in the British forces will probably never be available. But the fact that at one time approximately one-third of the British airmen were Canadian born, serves as an index to the considerable numbers of Canadians who fought with the Imperials.

As early as 1915, owing to the way in which the British War Office had used up much of its best material in the first battles of the war, there was already a need for suitable candidates for commissions in the British army. The need was partly supplied by numbers of Canadians. Not only were many young Canadian officers, mostly university undergraduates, sent over to England; but many Canadians who had enlisted in the ranks, both in the British Army and in the Canadian Contingents, were able to obtain commissions with the Imperials.

From an early date, a remarkable number of these expressed a preference for the aerial side of warfare. There were at this period two air services in England, the Royal Flying Corps and the Royal Naval Air Service; and into both of these the Canadians flocked. Their dash, their self-reliance, their willingness to take chances, rendered them as a rule excellent air-fighters. It was not long before they had won a reputation in the air, and further Canadian enlistments were frankly welcomed by Adastral House. From 1915 to the end of the war a constant stream of Canadians, therefore, poured into the air service of the Empire. Some squadrons in France, indeed, came to be composed almost wholly of Canadians.

The achievements of the Canadian airmen were indeed brilliant. It is only necessary to mention the names of Bishop, Collishaw, Barker, and a host of other Canadian "aces" to bring home the part that Canadian airmen played in the war. Bishop held the record for the number of machines brought down on the British front, having destroyed more than seventy enemy machines, apart from many driven down out of control. So far as is known, only one French airman and one German airman exceeded his record. He won nearly every military honour which it was possible for a flying officer to win, including the Victoria Cross. The *London Gazette* notice of the award of the Victoria Cross to him contains such a thrilling story that it is worth reprinting in full:

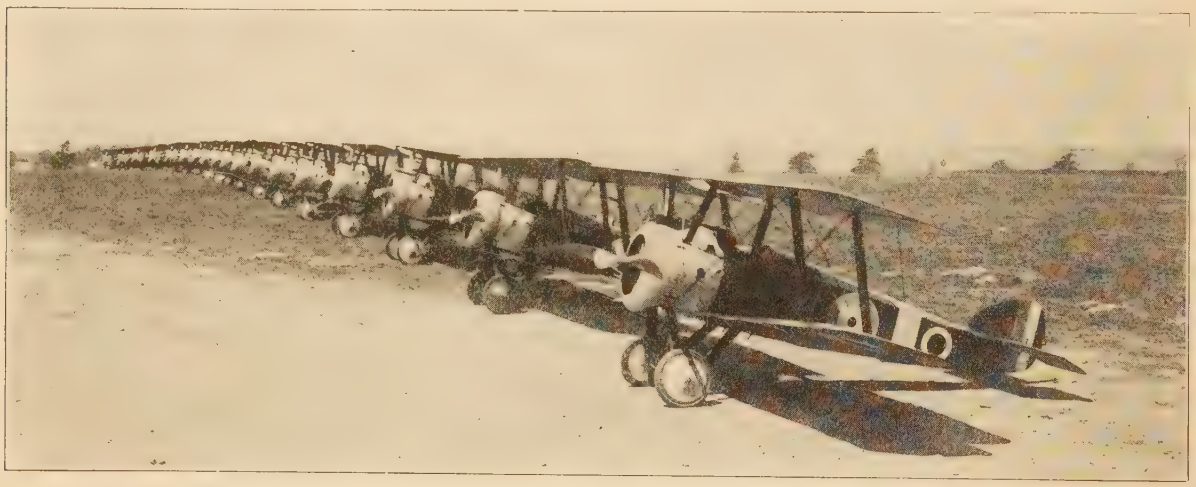
"*V. C. August* 10, 1917: *Capt. Wm. Avery Bishop.*

"For most conspicuous bravery, determination, and skill. Captain Bishop, who had been sent out to work independently, flew first of all to an enemy aerodrome; finding no machine about, he flew to an-

other aerodrome about three miles south-east, which was at least twelve miles the other side of the line. Seven machines, some with their engines running, were on the ground. He attacked these from about fifty feet, and a mechanic, who was starting one of the engines, was seen to fall. One of the machines got off the ground, but at a height of sixty feet Captain Bishop fired fifteen rounds into it at very close range, and it crashed to the ground. A second machine got off the ground, into which he fired thirty rounds at 150 yards range, and it fell into a tree.

for one of the deeds of derring-do performed by a paladin of the Crusades. Nor did mediaeval knight ever encounter adventures half so many or half so thrilling as this modern knight errant of the air. During his first five months' fighting in the air, Bishop fought no less than one hundred and ten single combats with the enemy, with a total of no less than seventy machines destroyed or driven down out of control. On one occasion he fell 4,000 feet with his machine in flames, and escaped unhurt.

Scarcely less remarkable than the rec-



A row of the Aeroplanes operated by Canadian officers of a R. A. F. squadron in France. Many Canadian flyers made a special record in the Imperial air forces, their skill and daring winning the admiration of the army and aiding materially in driving the Hun from the air at critical stages of the war.

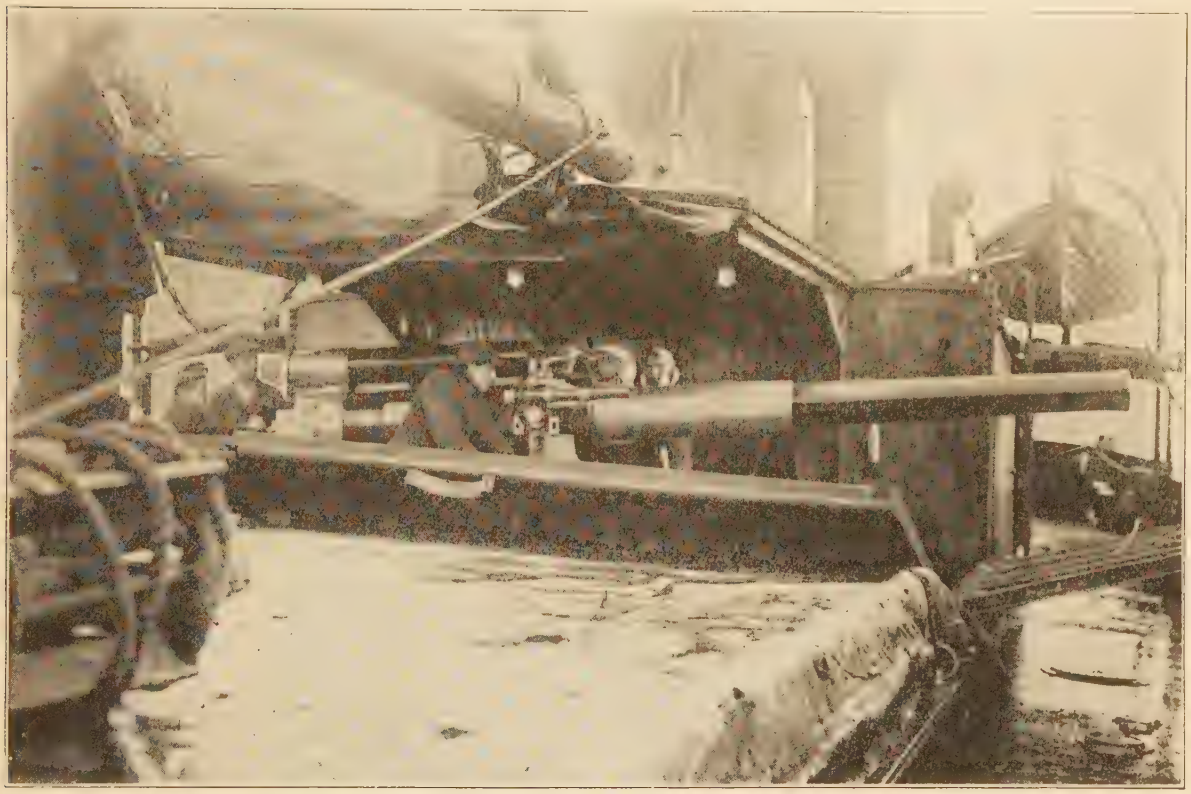
Two more machines then rose from the aerodrome. One of these he engaged at the height of 1,000 feet, emptying the rest of his drum of ammunition. This machine crashed 300 yards from the aerodrome, after which Captain Bishop emptied a whole drum into the fourth hostile machine, and then flew back to his station. Four hostile scouts were about 1000 feet above him for about a mile of his return journey, but they would not attack. His machine was very badly shot about by machine-gun fire from the ground."

If the necessary substitutions were made—if the desert were substituted for the air, and the battle-horse for the battle-plane—this adventure might well stand

ord of Bishop was that of Collishaw on the Western front and Barker on the Italian front. Collishaw, who was awarded the D. S. O. for "great gallantry and skill in all his combats", had a total of machines to his credit only a few less than that of Bishop; and the decorations won by Barker in his air-fighting actually exceeded in number and variety those won by Bishop. Nor should mention be omitted of the marvellous achievements of many less famous Canadian airmen. Hervey, a Canadian in the Royal Naval Air Service, won the D. S. C. "for tackling ten Gothas single-handed in a German raid and bringing down two of them". Hobbs, another Canadian in the Royal Naval Air Service, won the D. S.

O. and the D. S. C. for bringing down a Zeppelin and for demolishing three submarines. And so one might go on with an enumeration of Canadian exploits in the air. Nowhere did Canadian pluck and valour shine more brilliantly than in the achievements of the boys from Canada who fought in both branches of the Royal Air Force.

In addition to the thousands of Canadians who enlisted with the Imperials, there were many Canadian officers who were seconded from the Canadian Expeditionary Force to the Imperial army. In some cases these officers were asked for by the War Office on account of special qualifications. Many Canadians with a knowledge of chemistry were told off for duty with the Ministry of Munitions. The commandant of the Canadian Training School for officers and cadets at Bexhill-on-Sea was so successful that he was borrowed by the British to command the training school for cadets in the Royal Air Force. Major-Gen. Lipsett, who commanded for a long time the Third Canadian Division at the front, was selected for a higher position on the staff of one of the British armies. Canadian officers who had a knowledge of French and German were seconded to the Imperials as intelligence officers; and Canadian officers unfit for service in the front line were employed in such formations as the Salvage Corps. In other cases the Imperials made places for Canadians who were surplus to the establishment of the Overseas Military Forces of Canada. Owing to the method of recruiting in Canada, under which battalions were for long recruited instead of drafts, many battalions had to be broken up on arrival in England; and many senior officers in the Canadian forces consequently became surplus. Numbers of these officers reverted to the rank of lieutenant, and went



Hidden mysteries of the famous "Q" ship of the British Navy, H. M. S. Suffolk Coast, used as a decoy to capture or destroy submarines. View of the dummy deckhouse, showing the gun which was concealed until the iron doors fell at a signal from the bridge.

to the front as reinforcements. Others were not able or were not willing to do this; and for many of these places were found by the War Office on the lines of communication. The variety of work performed by these officers had in it something of the amusing. Some became town majors or area commandants; others became burial officers or railway transport officers. Some commanded laundries or bath-houses behind the lines; others commanded Chinese labour battalions or English works companies. One Canadian officer, who was in peace time a professor of botany at an American university, did such good work in promoting agricultural production behind the lines that he was given oversight of all agricultural operations on the British front.

The part that some Canadians came to play in the prosecution of the war had in it, indeed, elements of the spectacular. One of the most remarkable romances of the war was the career of a Canadian financier, Sir Max Aitken, afterwards Lord Beaverbrook. From being first the Canadian eye-witness at the front, and then Canadian War Records officer, he became a member of the British Cabinet, and head of the Ministry of Information; and the propaganda conducted in the last year of the war by his department had, in the opinion of shrewd observers, no inconsiderable influence in weakening the morale of the enemy peoples. Another Canadian, who went overseas as the adjutant of a Montreal battalion, became secretary of the British War Mission to the United States, and was knighted by the king. A Canadian contractor from Toronto rose to have charge of road construction behind the British lines in France. Canadian scientific men did splendid work on the Inventions Board

Lieut.-Com. Harold Autor, V. C., D. S. C., captain of the "Q" ship, Suffolk Coast, appearing up the hidden hatchway to the bridge, on board the famous submarine decoy ship.

appointed by the British government, especially in developing devices used in the anti-submarine warfare. In the wider sphere of Imperial war effort, many individual Canadians were not found wanting when weighed in the balance.

Something should be said also about Canada's part in the Great War on its naval side. Unfortunately, when the war broke out, Canada had a navy composed of only two training ships, one of which was dismantled. Immediately on the outbreak of war, the Canadian government purchased two submarines, for the purpose of defending the coast of British Columbia from the attack of German raiders, which seemed imminent at that time. And at a later stage of the war, the Canadian government organized a fleet of small coastal patrol vessels of the trawler and drifter type, for the purpose of defending the Atlantic seaboard from submarine attack. But at no period was Canada able to play the glorious part in the war on the high seas played, for instance, by the naval forces of Australia. Her chief contribution to the naval side of the war was in the recruits she furnished to the British navy. The fact that Canada had no navy of her own worthy of the name, meant that those Canadians who preferred sea-fighting to land-fighting had to take service with the Royal Navy or the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve. In all nearly 2,000 Canadians were enrolled in the naval services of the Empire. A large number of these had commissions in the British Auxiliary Patrol Service; and scores of the little motor launches or "scooters" which did such yeoman service in coping with the German submarine menace were commanded by young Canadian naval officers. In the operations off Zeebrugge and Ostend in the spring of 1918, in which the old *Vindictive* figured so gloriously, some of the most hazardous details were in the hands of these motor launch commanders. Other Canadians were found on submarines, torpedo-boat destroyers, and—to a less extent—on larger warships, all over the Seven Seas. And in the merchant marine, that splendid body of fearless civilian sailors who daily braved the nerve-racking menace of the German submarine torpedo, Canadian sailormen did their bit with no less of fortitude and heroism than the sailors of any other part of the British Empire. Canada's naval effort was, it is true, small and inadequate; but what there was of it was splendid and worthy.

Lastly, mention should be made of the part played by Newfoundland in the war. Newfoundland is not a partner in the Canadian Confederation, but it is so closely connected with Canada both historically and actually that a reference to its war effort may fittingly be included here. On the outbreak of war, Newfoundland, which is England's oldest colony, promptly offered a regiment for service at the front. The Royal Newfoundland Regiment, as it was named, joined the First Canadian contingent on its way across the Atlantic in October, 1914. It was not, however, included in the Canadian forces, but was made part of a British division which went to Gallipoli. At Gallipoli it won for itself a high reputation; it reached a point nearer Constantinople than any other, and it had the honour of being the last unit to leave the peninsula. From Gallipoli the Newfoundlanders were sent to France, and in the Battle of the Somme, both during the first assault and during the later stages, they fought with a gallantry that called forth universal comment. The following year they did good work at Monchy, near Arras, and in the third battle of Ypres; and in 1918 they played their part in repelling the German offensive, and in driving home the allied counter-offensive. Each year their casualties were pathetic; yet in comparison with their numbers, no troops gained a more justly famous reputation than the Royal Newfoundland Regiment.

Hungary - Austria
Poland - Roumania
Czecho-Slovakia
Jugo-Slavia - Italy
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100
125 Miles to the Inch
Longitude 15° East from Greenwich
GERMANY
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA
POLAND
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
ROUMANIA
SERBIA
MONTENEGRO
ITALY
BOSNIA
VIENNA
BUDAPEST
BELGRADE
SARAJEVO
TYROL
CARNIOLA
CARINTHIA
DALMATIA
TRANSYLVANIAN ALPS
CARPATHIAN MTS.
Danube R.
Main R.
Vistula R.
Elbe R.
Po R.
Adriatic Sea

The Civilian War Effort

CHAPTER IX

MUNITION-MAKING — FOOD PRODUCTION AND FOOD ECONOMY — THE CANADIAN RED CROSS — THE PATRIOTIC FUND — TAG DAYS — THE SPIRIT OF THE PRESS — THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CHURCHES — THE WORK OF THE WOMEN — THE SLACKERS AND THE PROFITEERS — THE CASUALTY LISTS — "IF YE BREAK FAITH".

There was a home front as well as a front in France and Flanders; and the one was hardly less important than the other. If the efforts of the Canadian soldiers overseas had not been loyally seconded by the civilian war effort at home, the story of Canada's part in the war might be very different from what it is. Nor were there lacking elements of self-sacrifice and devotion in the story of most of the men and women who stayed at home, any more than in the story of the men and women who went overseas.

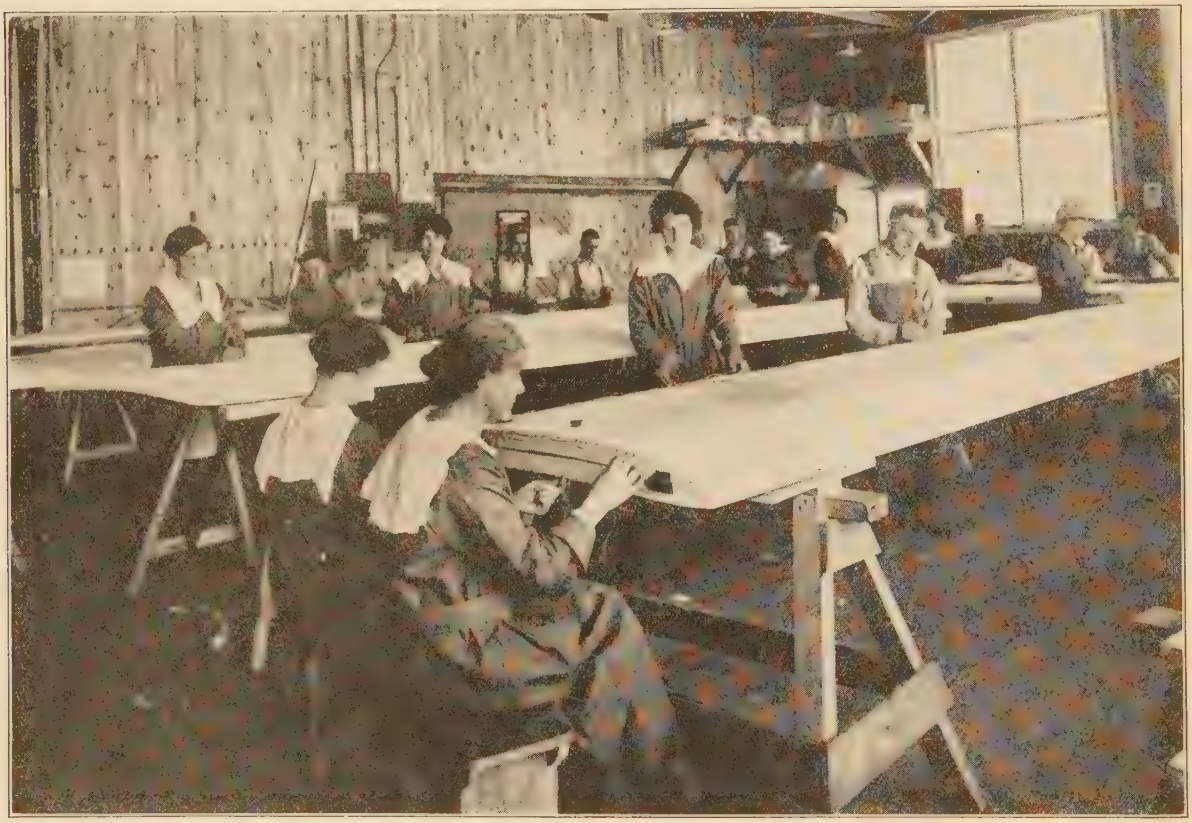
The phase of civilian war effort in Canada most closely connected with the winning of the war was probably the making of munitions. Vast contracts were let in Canada not only for the manufacture of munitions for the Canadian army, but for the British and the American armies as well. It is estimated that there were in Canada in 1918 no less than 250,000 workers, men and women, engaged in the making of war munitions of all kinds; and there were perhaps another 50,000 engaged in handling these munitions in transportation and in other collateral organizations. To take only one item, Canadian plants had turned out by the end of 1918, at a moderate estimate, no less than 75 million shells, of all grades from the 18-pounder to the 9.2". In the case of the 18-pounder it is a remarkable fact that in the last six months of 1917 no less than 55 per cent of the total British output of shrapnel shells of this type came from Canada. In the manufacture of munitions for the British government alone, over a billion and a half of dollars have been expended.

But shells are only one item in Canada's war output. Included in the general term of munitions there have been turned out in Canada explosives, aeroplanes, wooden ships, steel ships, military uniforms, boots, maple leaf badges, rifles, haversacks, tents, and a hundred other items, the total value of which staggers comprehension.

Hardly less important than the making of munitions was increased food production in Canada during the war, by means of which the food deficiencies of the countries of Europe were partially made up. In spite of the great scarcity of labour in Canada, caused by the hundreds of thousands of enlistments in the army, Canadian farmers and ranchers succeeded in materially increasing their output between 1914 and 1918. At the same time, the general public, by careful economy and self-sacrifice, reduced the consumption of food in Canada. The result was that Canada was able to export to the war-ridden countries of Europe foodstuffs out of all proportion to what it had exported before the war. Where the annual export of eggs before 1914 was only 158,217 doz. it had jumped by 1918 to 4,898,793 doz. The annual export of wheat flour jumped from 434,969 barrels to 9,931,148 barrels; and the export of beef from 5,217,652 lbs. to 86,565,104

lbs. These figures are perhaps the most striking, and other exports did not show such a stupendous increase; but taken all in all, Canadian food exports during the war more than quadrupled themselves. This fact alone is a sufficient commentary on the patriotic efforts of the Canadian producer and the self-sacrifice of the Canadian consumer.

Nor did the Canadian public forget Rudyard Kipling's injunction to "pay, pay, pay". Dominion, provincial, and municipal taxation went up by leaps and bounds to meet the expenses of the war; and vast sums of money were borrowed by the government from the people. But over and above the financial effort of the Canadian people in these directions, private purse-strings were opened with almost incredible generosity for the support of a number of voluntary war organizations. Among these, for instance, was the Red Cross Society. This society exists for the purpose of supplementing the work of the Army Medical Corps by furnishing hospital supplies and comforts for the sick and wounded. An important and admirable feature of its work has been the care of Canadian prisoners of war in Germany and elsewhere; had it not been for the parcels of food and clothing sent by the Red Cross to the Canadian inmates of the enemy prison camps, many of these unfortunate men might never have seen again their Canadian homes. Contributions to the Canadian Red Cross during the war totalled, in cash and supplies, approximately $20,000,000. In addition to these contributions, more than $6,000,000 went to the British Red Cross; and to the French Red Cross, the Polish Relief Fund, and the Belgian Relief Fund, millions more. The number of voluntary war organizations that ap-



Canadian girls making aeroplane wings at the Leaside Barracks of the Royal Air Force, near Toronto. They became adepts at the work and realized its importance to the flyers who braved the dangers of the air.

pealed, and appealed successfully, to the Canadian public were indeed legion. To the military work of the Y. M. C. A. alone no less than $5,000,000 was contributed.

The most extraordinary financial contribution of Canada, however, outside the ordinary channels of taxation, was the Canadian Patriotic Fund, which was established for looking after the dependents of Canadian soldiers overseas. The Canadian army was at the beginning of the war one of the best paid in the world; but the Canadian people had a laudable desire that the dependents of the men who were fighting should not want for anything while their bread-winners were away. The Patriotic Fund was therefore formed, and a scale of allowances, over and above the allowances of the army, was granted to needy dependents of private soldiers and non-commissioned officers. Including the Manitoba Patriotic Fund, which was a separate organization, the total of Canadian contributions to the Fund was between $40,000,000 and $50,000,000—an amazing sum when it is remembered that it was composed wholly of free gifts.

A British woman veterinary administering a "blueball" to a horse on "His Majesty's service." (British official photograph.)

Taken all together, it is probable that voluntary contributions in Canada for all kinds of war purposes reached the sum of over $100,000,000. The means by which this money was raised would make a story in itself. Special appeals, whirlwind campaigns, special collections in the churches, tag-days,—all were employed. Tag-days proved to be among the most successful devices for getting money for patriotic purposes; and the man on the street delved down into his pockets with extraordinary patience as one tag-day succeeded another.

In maintaining the home front in Canada, much of the credit must go to the Canadian newspapers. The spirit of the press was never better in Canada than during the war. With rare exceptions, newspapers of every political stripe preached the paramount duty of winning the war. If there was criticism of the government, it was generally criticism that was intended to be helpful rather than obstructive. Every worthy object of public support was heartily commended to newspaper readers. The Canadian Associated Press, during the later stages of the fighting, kept a correspondent continuously with the Canadian troops in France, so that the people of Canada would be able to get news of their own soldiers through Canadian sources; and many newspapers had special correspondents of their own in England and France. The work of these correspondents, in keeping up the morale of Canada's civilian population, was no small factor in aiding Canada's civilian war effort.

Good work in the same direction was done by the churches. Although the sympathy of the churches was naturally with peace rather than war, they realized at

the outset that peace was only to be attained through the winning of the war; and with one accord they bent their efforts toward this end. In encouraging enlistments, in asking for contributions for Red Cross and other benevolent objects, in commending to the people the Victory Loans of the Dominion government, they were not backward. Nor did their efforts stop short of action, apart from words. Many congregations made great sacrifices in order to enable their pastors to go to the front as chaplains; and not a few clergymen proved their quality by enlisting in the ranks as private soldiers. Conspicuous among these were many French priests of the province of Quebec, exiles from the land of their birth, who nevertheless went back to France, and won as *poilus* in the French army death or glory on the battlefield. There never was any doubt as to where the great churches of Canada stood on the vital question of the prosecution of the war.

It is fitting, too, that a tribute should be paid here to the work of the women. The years of the war saw a remarkable spread, in Canada as well as in other parts of the English-speaking world, of female suffrage; and rightly so, for the women of Canada showed themselves during the war deserving of the franchise in many different ways. Statistics, however complete, can give only an imperfect idea of the services which they rendered; but the following are a few facts bearing on the subject. Fully 2,000 women, enlisted as nursing sisters in the Canadian Expeditionary Force; and thousands more served as V. A. D.'s either in Canada, England, or France. Over 1,000 were employed by the Royal Air Force in Can-

A British factory with women workers busily engaged in making fuse plugs for large shells. This factory in pre-war times made cotton-spinning machinery. The women here as elsewhere proved themselves skillful and speedy mechanics. (British official photograph.)

ada on a wide range of duties, including motor transport work; and numbers went overseas as ambulance drivers or on other war work. The number of women employed in munition factories at one time exceeded 30,000. Between 5,000 and 6,000 were employed in the civil service, on work created for the most part by the war; and no less than 75,000 gave their services free to assist in the compilation of the national register in June, 1918. Figures are not available to show the extent to which women in commercial and industrial life replaced men who had been called to the colours, or the extent to which they took a share in agricultural work. But there were many thousands of women in banks, offices, and factories which before the war had almost exclusively a male staff; and by the end of the war women were working on the farms in all parts of the country. Even among women who were not able to take a more direct part in the civilian war effort of the country, there was few who were not perpetually knitting socks for the soldiers at the front.

Canada had of course its slackers,—men who through cowardice or love of ease or of money refused to bear the white man's burden, and women who through selfishness refused to make the sacrifices that patriotism demanded. Canada had too its profiteers, men who saw in the world's agony nothing but an opportunity for the amassing of money. But these people existed in other countries as well; and the hope may be expressed that they were not more numerous in Canada than elsewhere.

For those who saw the path of duty and followed it, the war was a time of trial and testing that bore fruit in a clearer vision and a firmer faith. As the casualty lists poured in, with their tale of death and wounds, many a mother and many a wife learnt the solace of pride and the courage of faith. In many a Canadian home there went on a spiritual struggle no less profound than the physical struggle on the battlefield; and victory crowned the one no less often than it crowned the other. The part of those who stayed at home was sometimes harder than that of those who left home; and the glory of the latter sometimes transcended the glory of the former.

Some of the most beautiful lines inspired by the war, lines written by a Canadian soldier-poet who afterwards died in France, set the standard for the Canadian people to live up to in the Great Conflict:

In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly,
Scarce heard amid the guns below.

We are the dead. Short days ago
We loved, felt dawn and sunset glow,
Loved and were loved; and now we lie
In Flanders fields.

Take up our quarrel with the foe,
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch, be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die,
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow
In Flanders fields.

Thank God, the torch was caught and held. The Canadian people did not break faith with those who died.

Russia
Poland - Finland
Baltic States - Ukraine
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300
ARCTIC OCEAN
NOVA ZEMBLA
Kara Strait
YALMAL PENIN.
Gulf
Kara Bay
VAIGATZ I.
DOLGOI
KOLGUEFF I.
C. HUSKI
SAVOROF
Pechora Bay
Pechora R.
Kuja
Paejer
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Kushevatskoi
SIBERIA
Gnesim Oja
Sosva R.
Pass Nier
Petscher
Jelping Nier
Konda R.
Tura
Canal
Umpinsk
Petropaulovski
Bogoslovsk
Garitsk
Verchoturie
Nijni Tagilsk
Irbit
Kungur
Perm
Ekaterinburg
Dalmatof
Thielibinsk
Kuskinskaia
Birsk
Ufa
Duvanee
Ritzkleva
Troitsk
Uralsk
Orsk
Orenburg
Bandoisk
Sorotchinsk
Samara
Buzuluk
Saratzkoi
Poltarsk
Seitorskii
Nicolskoi
Ft Baranvi
Ft Mortvefof
Tolkar L.
Griashnoi L.
Saratof
Pokrovskaia
Altata
Ust Salicha
Uralsk
Nikolaievskaia
Uzensk
Novo
Elton
Salt L.
Solianaia prist
Wolodimirovka
Udatchnaia
Tambovka
Enotaievsk
Sictovka
Mouths of the Ural
Krasnoi Iar
Mouths of the Volga
Czarevitsa Bay
Astrakhan
Krasnie Kopany
Batgalinskaia
Holduk
Kuma
Burgon Madzar
Kislar
Mozdok
Prokhladaia
Tamovski
Girej
Mt. Elburz
Vladikavkaz
Petrovsk
Ashtl
Derbend
Kuba
Baku
C. APSHERON
Salyany
Kizil Agatch
Lenkoran
Shemacha
Kara Buyaz Gulf
Caspian Sea Level
Nakhitchevan
Urdabad
Erivan
Kagysman
Kars
Alexandropol
Tiflis
Signakh
Sukhum Kale
Kutais
Kazbec
Batum
Akhaltsikh
Artvin
Lanchen
Deligan
Mt. Ararat
ARMENIA
TURKEY
CONSTANTINOPLE
Sea of Marmora
AEGEAN SEA
GREECE
BULGARIA
SOFIA
Danube
BUKHAREST
ROUMANIA
Ismail
Reni
Bolgrad
Kagul
Akerman
Vilkovo
Mouths of the Danube
Sea of Azof
Taganrog
Berdiansk
Eisk
Jeisk
Ekaterinovskaia
Tichorezkaia
Andrievk
Rostof
Taganrog
Don
Savillief
Chirskoi
Chymlianskaia
Swerewo
Chirnoi Yar
Kalatch
Lugansk
Kamenskaia
Cherkovo
Chirkaia
Kremenskaia
Guliaievka
Tolovai
Dubovka
Zaritzin
Volga
Ural
Caspian Sea
Odessa
Kherson
Sevastopol
Simferopol
Baidar
Yalta
Balaklava
Feodosia
Kertch Str.
Kertch
Temrjuk
Anapa
Novorossiisk
Georgievsk
Maikop
Viliaminovskoe
Navaginski
Ekaterinodar
Jeisk
Jeriejeiskaia
Dianskoi
Taganrog
Berdiansk
Eisk
Jasinovka
Bielgorod
Zolotchef
Kharkof
Bogodrikof
Pavlovsk
Alexievskaia
Kamischin
Boturlinovka

Canada's War Government

CHAPTER X

THE BORDEN GOVERNMENT OF 1914-1917 — THE PARTY TRUCE — THE UNION GOVERNMENT — WAR FINANCE — MUNITIONS — THE ROSS RIFLE — SHIPBUILDING — THE WAR TRADE BOARD — THE FOOD BOARD — FUEL AND TRANSPORTATION — THE WAR MEASURES ACT — SOLDIERS' CIVIL RE-ESTABLISHMENT — CANADA AND THE EMPIRE.

Party politics and the racial question have unfortunately become mixed up in Canada with the conduct of the war. Happily, however, it does not fall within the scope of this chronicle of Canada's part in the Great War to dwell on these factors in detail. To mention them is sufficient. But no account of Canada's war effort would be complete which did not attempt to sketch the work of Canada's war government, both before and after the formation of the Union Government in 1917.

When war broke out, the Conservative administration of Sir Robert Borden was in power at Ottawa. The first war measures adopted by the Borden government met with the approval of the vast majority of the Canadian people. Both the great parties in parliament stood behind the Canadian government's offer of men and supplies for the defence of the Empire. Both Sir Robert Borden and Sir Wilfrid Laurier and their supporters took the view that it was Canada's duty to strain every effort to help to defeat the Germans, and that the only thing that mattered was the winning of the war. The only discordant note was struck by Henri Bourassa and a small group of Quebec Nationalists. But this group was without influence in parliament. So far as Liberals and Conservatives were concerned, a party truce was declared; and to all intents and purposes Canada presented a united front to the enemy.

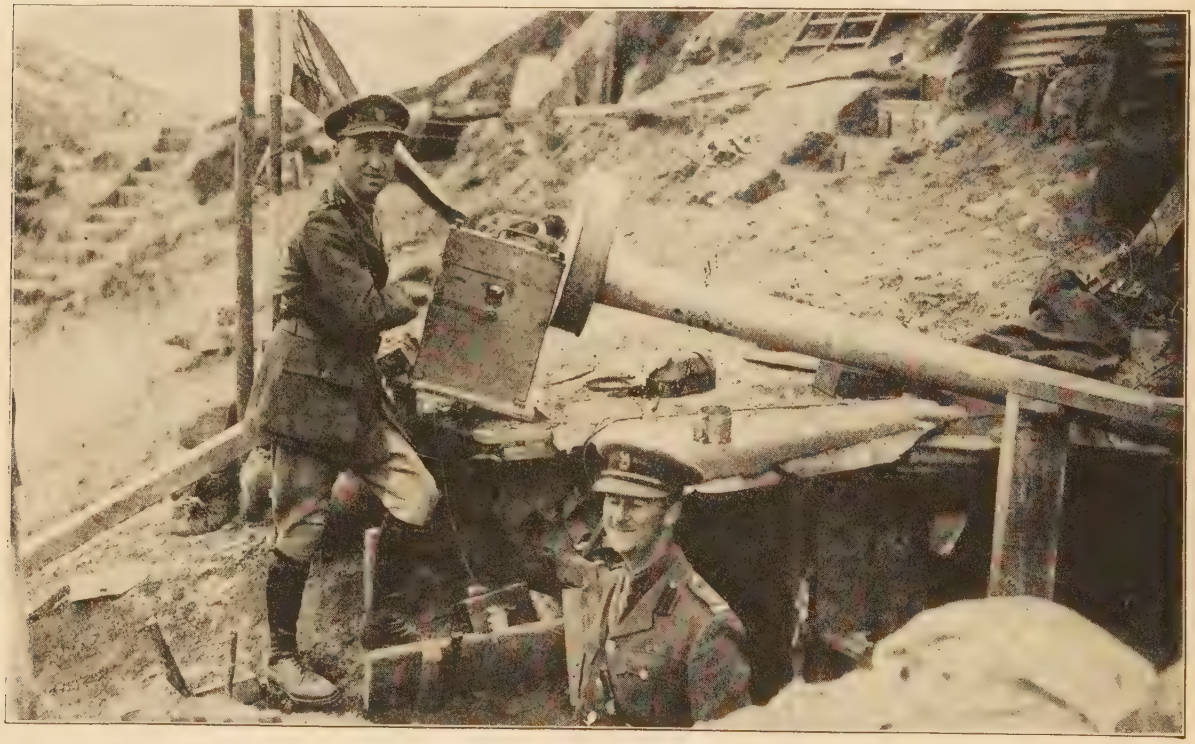
In time, however, the party truce broke down. It broke down, not over the question of fighting the war to a finish, but over the question of method. By 1917 Sir Robert Borden had come to the conclusion that, if Canada's reinforcements were to be kept up, compulsory military service would have to be introduced. A part of the Liberal party failed to agree with him, holding that the volunteer system had not had a fair trial. The remainder of the Liberal party, however, joined hands with the government; and a Union Government of both Liberals and Conservatives was formed, under the leadership of Sir Robert Borden.

In the Union Government, out of a total of twenty-three ministers, no less than ten were prominent Liberals; and presumably the infusion of this new blood gave the government greater vigour and stability. But in view of the fact that both in this government and in that which preceded it the guiding hand was that of Sir Robert Borden, the work of both administrations may be dealt with together.

First and foremost in importance comes the work of the Department of Finance under Sir Thomas White, for in the winning of the war the "silver bullet" played a part hardly less decisive than the leaden bullet. The problem confronting the Department of Finance at the outbreak of the war was indeed serious. Canada was a borrowing country; but, aside from the United States during the first two or three years of the war, the

countries she had borrowed from were after 1914 not able to lend. The cost of the war promised to be stupendous; it has actually been so stupendous that the national debt of Canada, which before the war stood at about $336,000,000, quadrupled in size by the end of 1918. To raise the money to pay for Canada's war expenditures, the Department of Finance appealed to the people of Canada, with the result that, especially in the Victory Loans of 1917 and 1918, more was obtained than was asked for. In order to pay the interest on the debts thus contracted, and to meet also certain current war expenditures, increased taxation was necessarily imposed. The form which this taxation took met with general approval. In addition to increased customs duties and higher rates of excise, a special war tax was placed on railway tickets, telegrams, cheques, letters, telegrams, patent medicines, and amusements. Luxuries, such as tobacco, motor-cars, and jewelry, were taxed with especial stiffness. A popular tax was the excess business profits tax, by which war profiteers were compelled to disgorge a part at least of their ill-gotten gains; and a new feature was the Dominion income tax inaugurated in 1918, the first instance of direct taxation in the federal sphere since the formation of the Dominion over half a century before.

The problem of financing Canada's part in the war was greatly facilitated by the very large orders for war munitions placed by the British government in Canada, orders which the Canadian government was largely instrumental in securing. The total credits established in Canada on behalf of the British government amounted to considerably over half a billion dollars, a large part of which went to carry on the operations of the Imperial Munitions Board in Canada. At the same time, Great Britain made very large advances to Canada, chiefly for the mainte-



Captain the Honorable Frederick Shaughnessy, son of the well-known Canadian railroad magnate, clearing the bad air from his dugout with the aid of a captured German machine made for this purpose.

nance of Canadian troops overseas. These credits, as it happened, very nearly cancelled each other; and a great simplification of the war finance of both Canada and Great Britain was the result.

The munitions manufactured in Canada reached as a rule a high standard. Over one item, however, the Ross rifle,—the Canadian service arm in which the government, through a contract with the manufacturers dating from long before the war, were especially interested,—an unhappy controversy arose. It is unnecessary here to attempt to discuss the controversy in detail. On all hands it was admitted that the Ross rifle was an excellent target weapon; but the fact was indisputable that the men at the front lost confidence in it, and discarded it for the Lee-Enfield, the British arm, whenever the opportunity arose. Sir Sam Hughes, the Minister of Militia, was committed to the support of the Ross rifle; but when the evidence as to lack of confidence which the men at the front had in the weapon became too strong to be doubted, Sir Robert Borden and the Cabinet cancelled the Canadian contract with the Ross rifle factory, and armed the Canadians in England and France with the Lee-Enfield. The truth was that the Canadian Department of Militia was without sufficient experience of the type of weapons and equipment required at the front; and much Canadian equipment, over and above the Ross rifle, had to be scrapped in England, including a wonderful combination shield and entrenching tool, popularly known as "Sam Hughes' shovel."

Canadians at the front taking advantage of a period of rest to do a little mending on the shirts that Sister Susie sewed for soldiers.

A little known feature of the Canadian government's work was its shipbuilding program. During the year 1918 there were launched in Canada no less than 112 vessels, 59 of them steel and 53 wooden, with an approximate deadweight tonnage

of 446,600 tons; and these figures do not include a large number of small craft of less than 1,000 tons, such as trawlers and drifters, of which a large number have been built for the British government. In addition, contracts have been placed in Canada by the Department of the Naval Service, on behalf of the allied governments, for a number of submarines and for about 600 motor submarine chasers.

Good work was done by a number of boards or commissions established by the condition in exchange affecting Canadian finance and trade, it prohibited the import into Canada of non-essential articles such as motor-cars, perfumes, marble, gold and silver manufactures, pleasure boats, and billiard tables. The Canada Food Board, which was organized at the same time, and which succeeded to the duties of the former Food Controller, was entrusted with the double task of increasing production and promoting food conservation. In increasing production,

A party of German prisoners being searched after their capture by Canadians at Arleux and brought back to a trench behind the firing line.

government. The War Trade Board, which was organized in February, 1918, had the threefold object of controlling the export from Canada of articles essential to war industry, the supply of which was limited, controlling the import into Canada of non-essential articles, and supervising the raw materials of the country with a view to the most effective use of them in the prosecution of the war. In June, 1918, in order to relieve an unfavorable it arranged for emergency agricultural labour on the farms during the harvest season, notably the labour of many thousands of schoolboys during the long vacation; it purchased and sold at cost to the farmers over 1,100 tractors; and by a publicity campaign it brought home to all the necessity for sending vast supplies overseas to the warring countries of Europe. In promoting food conservation, it issued a multitude of food regulations restrict-

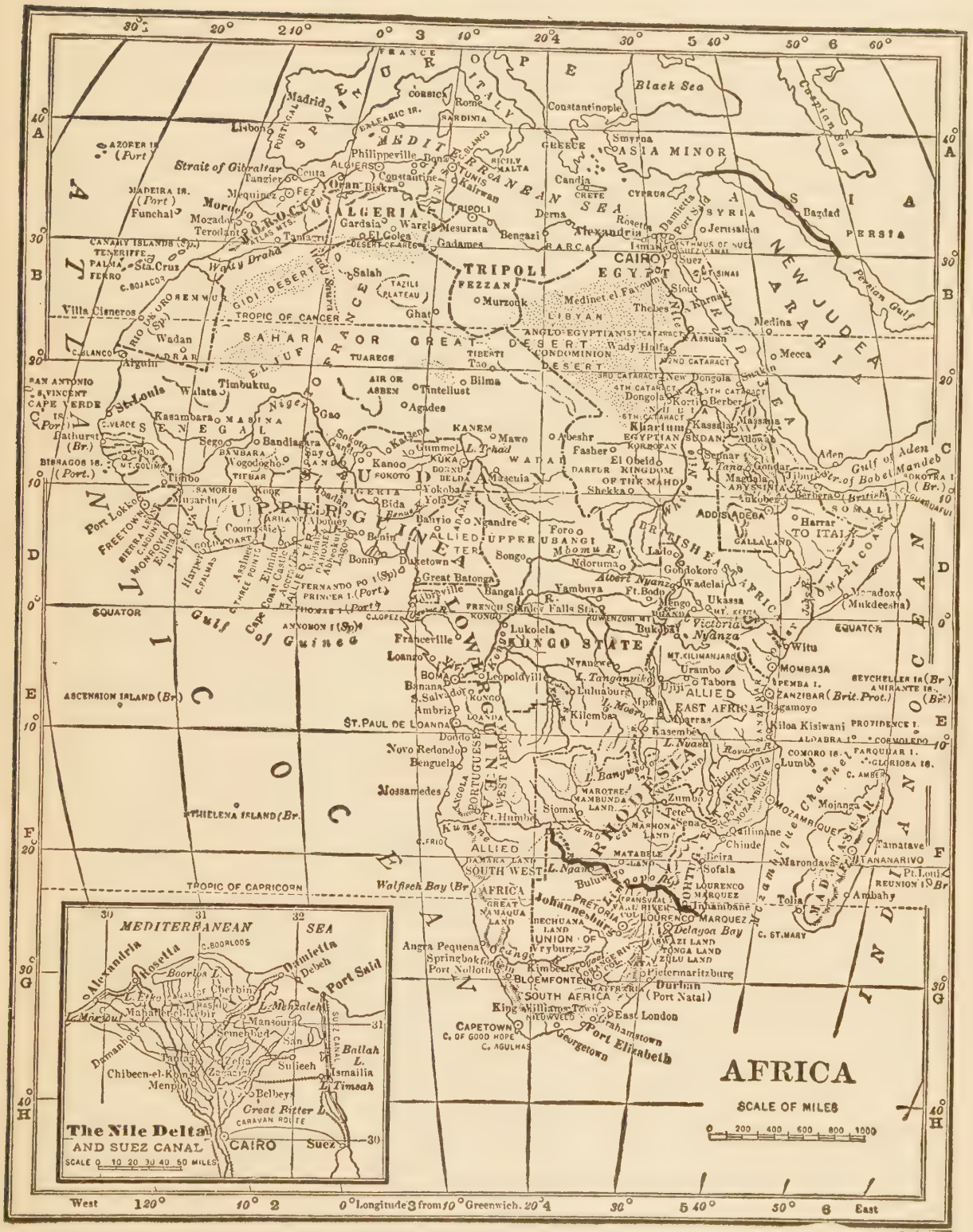
ing the home consumption of certain articles of diet, ordering the use of substitutes, prohibiting waste under severe penalties, and curbing speculation and excessive prices. It did not fix prices, as was done in Great Britain and to a less extent in the United States, with the result that the cost of living in Canada rose to unprecedented heights; but in so far as its work pertained to the successful prosecution of the war, the Food Board did most valuable service.

In the matter of fuel and transportation, splendid work was done by the Fuel Controller and the Canadian Railway War Board. On nothing in Canada perhaps did the war place a greater strain than on the supply of fuel and the railway system. The Fuel Controller did much to stimulate the production of coal in Canada, to secure for Canada its fair allotment of coal from the United States, and ensure an equitable distribution throughout the country. Equally beneficial was the work of the Railway War Board. In order to meet the congestion of traffic on the railways produced by the war, and especially by the entrance of the United States into the war, the War Board brought about a co-ordination of the various Canadian railway lines, so that, as regards actual transportation, these were treated as a unit, and shipments were "re-routed" over whatever line afforded the quickest means of transport. Thanks largely to the efforts of the Board, Canada escaped a block of railway traffic such as that which the United States experienced in the winter of 1917-18.

Long before the war ended, the government took measures to prepare for the period of demobilization and reconstruction after the war. Demobilization committees were appointed and a branch of the government was set up, known as the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, which was charged with looking after the re-absorption of the army in the social and economic fabric of the country. Under this department were placed both the Board of Pensions Commissioners and the Invalided Soldiers' Commission, the latter of which had already gained an international reputation for the success of its methods in refitting disabled men for civilian life. To cope with the general problem of reconstruction a special committee of the Cabinet was formed, just as a special committee of the Cabinet, the War Committee, had been appointed to supervise Canada's prosecution of the war.

Throughout the course of the Great War the Canadian government acted in the closest harmony and co-operation with the government of Great Britain. If there were before the war any tendencies in Canada toward the dissolution of the bonds of Empire, those tendencies were obliterated as the struggle went on. In a very real sense, the war knit closer the ties that linked Canada to the mother country. Repeatedly the prime minister of Canada was called into consultation by the British War Cabinet; the resident ministers of the overseas Dominions in London were admitted to the sessions of the Imperial War Cabinet; the prime ministers of the Dominions were given the right of direct access to the prime minister of Great Britain on matters of cabinet importance. War is the great political solvent. The experience of common effort and common action which the component parts of the British Empire gained in the war will not easily pass away; and it may well leave after it a legacy of closer union in the future. What form this union may take, it will be for the future to decide. But that the Empire whose soldiers fought shoulder to shoulder on many a stricken field of battle in the Great War, and whose peoples with spontaneous unanimity leapt to the defence of human liberty, should after the struggle supinely fall away and disintegrate, is something which it is difficult to believe. Much rather would one think that the trials and travails of the war will bear fruit in a purer imperialism and a larger patriotism; and that the glory that was the British Empire will be less than the glory that will be.

CYPRUS
(KIBRIS)
Scale: 10 Miles to the Inch
ROUMANIA, SERVIA, BULGARIA, MONTENEGRO AND EUROPEAN TURKEY.
(THE BALKAN STATES)
SCALE OF MILES
NICOSIA
Famagusta
Larnaka
Limasol
Paphos
Episkopi
Akrotiri
Longitude East
TO ROUMANIA
BELGRADE
Semendria
Mitrovitza
Peterwardein
Theresiopol
Szegedin
Temesvar
Vukovar
Hermannstadt
Kronstadt
Kimpolung
Roman
Jassy
Botuchani
Galatz
Ibraila
Tulcha
Bucharest
Krajova
Rustchuk
Silistria
Varna
Shumla
Sistova
Nikopol
Plevna
Orlechovitza
Tirnovo
Osman Bazar
Kazanlik
Silven
Burgas
Aitos
Jamboli
Zagora or Yeni Segra
EASTERN ROUMELIA
Philippopolis
Tatar Bazardjik
SOFIA
Nish
Pirot
Uskub
Salonika
Monastir
Ochrida
Durazzo
Elbasan
Tirana
Valona
Prevesa
Janina
Larissa
Volo
Gulf of Volo
Gulf of Arta
Gulf of Salonika
Gulf of Rendina
Gulf of Saros
Mount Athos
Samothraki Isl.
Imbros Isl.
Lemnos Isl.
Tenedos Isl.
Strait Isl.
Lesbos
Mitylene or Mitylini
Constantinople
Sea of Marmora
Hellespont or Dardanelles
Gallipoli
Kale-i-Sultaneh
Adrianople
Kirk Kilisseh
Tchorlo
Rodosto
Silivri
Scutari
Pendik
Brusa
Mudania
Ismid
Aivali
Smyrna
Gulf of Smyrna
Mytilene Chan.
Asia Minor
Greece
To Greece
Turkey
Roumania
Servia
Bulgaria
Montenegro
Adriatic Sea
Ionian Sea
Ægean Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Marmora
Danube R.
Save R.
Maros R.
Temes R.
Vardar R.
Struma R.
Maritza R.
Black Drin R.
White Drin R.
Transylvanian Alps
Balkan Mts.
Pindus Mts.
Olympus
Ossa
Pelion
Parnassus
Helicon
Cithæron
Parnes
Pentelikon
Hymettus
Athens
Piræus
Corinth
Patras
Navarino
Modon
Coron
Cape Matapan
Cape Malea
Cape Tænarum
Cape Gallo
Cape Papas
Cape Spada
Cape Sidero
Cape Salomon
Cape Sunium
Cape Colonna
Cape Doro
Cape Kanapitza
Cape Kaliakra
Cape Shabla
Cape Eminem
Cape Kuru
Cape Rodoni
Cape Palli
Cape Paliuri
Cape Baba
Cape Matapan
Cape Malea
Cape Tænarum
Cape Gallo
Cape Papas
Cape Spada
Cape Sidero
Cape Salomon
Cape Sunium
Cape Colonna
Cape Doro
Cape Kanapitza
Cape Kaliakra
Cape Shabla
Cape Eminem
Cape Kuru
Cape Rodoni
Cape Palli
Cape Paliuri
Cape Baba
Longitude East from Greenwich


AFRICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600 800 1000
The Nile Delta
AND SUEZ CANAL
SCALE 0 10 20 30 40 50 MILES
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CAIRO
Suez
Port Said
Alexandria
Rosetta
Damietta
Delbeh
Boorlos L.
Cherbin
L. Edku
L. Mareotis
L. Mehaleh
Mahallet-el-Kebir
Mansourah
Semenhud
San
Damanhour
Tanta
Zeita
Zagazig
Sulieeh
Chibeen-el-Kom
Menouf
Belbeys
Great Bitter L.
CARAVAN ROUTE
Ballah L.
Ismailia
L. Timsah
SUEZ CANAL
Longitude from Greenwich.
West
East

ARCTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
RUSSIA
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
SIBERIA
CHINESE REPUBLIC
JAPAN
KOREA
MANCHURIA
MONGOLIA
TURKESTAN
PERSIA
ARABIA
BRITISH INDIA
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
CHINA SEA
SOUTH CHINA SEA
FRENCH INDO CHINA
SIAM
BORNEO
CELEBES SEA
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS (U.S.)
LUZON
MINDANAO
CEYLON
SUMATRA
NEW GUINEA
AUSTRALIA
ASIA
AFRICA
EUROPE
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
RED SEA
PERSIAN GULF
GULF OF ADEN
BERING SEA
SEA OF OKHOTSK
YELLOW SEA
EAST CHINA SEA
SEA OF JAPAN
PETROGRAD
MOSCOW
BERLIN
VIENNA
CONSTANTINOPLE
LONDON
PEKIN
TOKIO
SEOUL
CALCUTTA
BOMBAY
MADRAS
CAIRO
SUEZ CANAL
SCALE OF MILES
0 200 400 600 800
40° Longitude 50 2 East from 60° 3 Greenwich 70° 4 80° 5 90° 6 100° 7 120° 8 130°

Property Of:
Martin Eckle
Amiret, Minn.